



**THE EFFECT OF L1 TRANSFER ON THE DISCOURSE  
COMPETENCE OF UNDERGRADUATE ESL  
STUDENTS IN A.M.U., ALIGARH**

**ABSTRACT  
THESIS**

**SUBMITTED FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF**

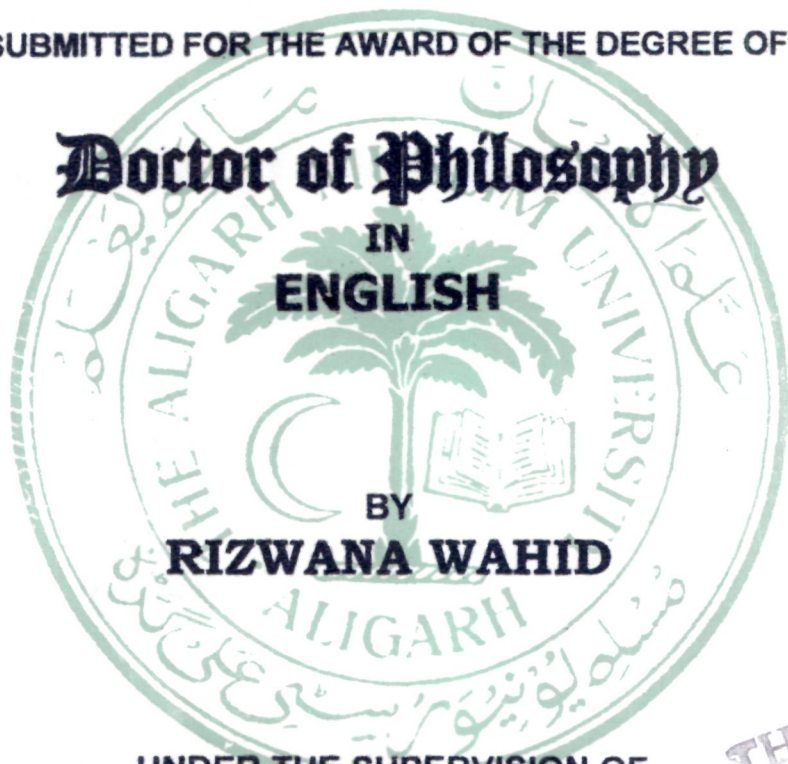
**Doctor of Philosophy  
IN  
ENGLISH**

**BY  
RIZWANA WAHID**

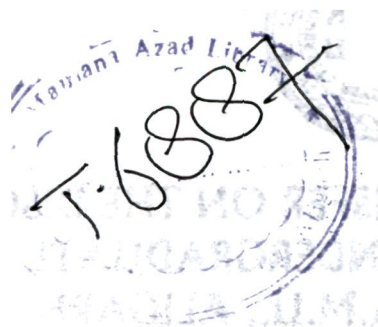
**UNDER THE SUPERVISION OF  
DR. KAUSAR HUSAIN**

**DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH  
ALIGARH MUSLIM UNIVERSITY  
ALIGARH (INDIA)**

**2007**



**THESIS**



## ABSTRACT

The present study seeks to examine the effect of L1 transfer on the discourse competence of undergraduate ESL students in A.M.U., Aligarh. When learners learn a second language/foreign language, the similarities and differences between the first language and the second language influence the learning of the target language. This process is termed 'transfer' (Odlin, 1989). Transfer might be a conscious and unconscious process, which operates in the mind of the learner. During the heyday of structuralism, linguists and researchers were of the view that similarities between L1 and L2 create ease while differences between L1 and L2 create difficulty [Lado (1957), Stockwell, Bowen and Martin (1965)]. In other words, close similarities between L1 and L2 (e.g., between lexical items, word-orders, reading and writing systems of L1 and L2) help in second language learning i.e., an Urdu speaking person learning Arabic as his/her second language would be facilitated by the transfer of vocabulary and writing systems. Negative transfer occurs when L2 learners' previous knowledge and performance interfere in L2 learning due to the differences between L1 and L2 [Weinreich (1953), Ard and Homburg (1983), Rutherford (1983) and Jarvis (2000)]. With the rejection of behaviourism and the introduction of cognitivism, the notion of interference of 'L1 habits' in L2 learning was also rejected. However, the role of L1, both negative and positive was again acknowledged and accommodated within a cognitive framework under the influence of later research in SLA. It was found that L1 did have a significant role to play in the subsequent learning of a second/foreign language, since the learners come to the learning task with the background of their previous knowledge in the form of mental schemata and all new knowledge is built upon the already existing knowledge in the mind of the learner. Since L1 constitutes a part of one's previous knowledge, it is bound to influence the learning of a second language. Also, learners' contribution to learning in the

form of their strategies and styles was also acknowledged, and the use of L1 was again accepted as a strategy of learning, though not as a habit. Thus, the study of transfer from L1 in different domains remains today an important and popular area of SLA research.

As already stated, the researcher has attempted to study transfer at the level of discourse. Discourse is interpreted at present in two ways. One meaning of discourse is the one given by Canale and Swain (1980) in their popular model of communicative competence. Discourse competence in this model refers to the ability to join sentences in a logical manner in a text. Thus, it refers to the organization and linking of sentences in larger than sentence patterns through the use of linkers. The other meaning given to discourse is the use of language in its social context. This meaning of discourse thus encompasses all the situational constraints in a communicative act including the speaker, the hearer and the setting. The researcher has attempted to study the transfer of discourse in terms of both these meanings through two different small scale studies on the undergraduate students of A.M.U., Aligarh.

The first study is the subject of Chapter III of the thesis, in which she studies the role of L1 transfer in the use of conjunctions in running texts through conducting a study on fifteen undergraduate ESL students of A.M.U., Aligarh. They were given three topics on the writing tasks (descriptive, narrative and expository) and were asked to choose one topic from each task and to write first in their L1 (Hindi/Urdu) and then to translate their texts into L2 (English). It was found that they transferred successfully their L1 conjunctions to L2 discourse. The second study is the subject of Chapter IV of the thesis, in which the researcher has examined the effect of transfer on the second meaning of discourse, that is, the transfer of L1 social and cultural norms to L2 discourse: spoken and written. She took fifteen students who performed five written and spoken speech acts: requests, thanks, apologies, greetings and leave-takings. It was found that they transferred their L1 socio-cultural norms and conventions to their L2 discourse. For example, they greet



their teacher by saying ‘Assalam-alaykum’ in the place of ‘Good morning’ and so on. In written forms, ESL learners use ‘Respected sir/madam’ while native speaker of English use ‘Dear sir/madam’.

The first and the second chapters of the thesis provide the background to the concepts of the transfer and discourse respectively. The first chapter is divided into three parts: the first part basically discusses the concept of transfer and reports some theoretical and empirical studies dealing with transfer. The second part discusses transfer at different levels namely, syntax, semantics, lexis and phonology. The third part deals with discourse transfer in terms of spoken and textual discourse. The second chapter deals mainly with discourse competence as a vital component of communicative competence, which is the ability to communicate in routine situations and includes the knowledge of the formal aspects of language as well as the ability to use language appropriately in different social contexts.

The study has a pedagogic orientation. The study reported in chapter III started with the aim to examine whether conjunctions are transferred from L1 to L2, and whether there is a need emphasize the teaching of conjunctions in the ESL classroom as the previous studies have suggested. In Indian universities, English language teaching materials have myriad grammatical exercises on linking devices and conjunctions, and a large amount of time of the academic session is spent on the teaching of these items and on completing these grammatical exercises. It was perceived by the researcher through her own experience and intuition that linking devices, especially conjunctions are successfully transferred from L1 to L2 and the time spent on teaching them may be saved and used in other fields of language learning. Therefore, she tried to find out through her study whether the teaching of conjunctions can be de-emphasized in the ESL classroom pedagogy, and this time be shifted to other fruitful areas, because ESL learners transfer conjunctions from L1 to L2 and can use them correctly and appropriately in their discourse.

The results of the study show that learners transfer various linking devices, that is, adversative, causal, temporal and additive, successfully to L2 from their L1 according to the linguistic and situational context. In the light of the above observation, it is suggested that grammar exercises on the use of linking devices at the undergraduate level be de-emphasized and valuable time spent on these exercises be shifted to other more important areas of vocabulary and syntax and possibly to other types of linking devices, such as English pronouns, ellipsis and substitution which differ from L1 use. Linking devices and especially conjunctions form a small and closed system of lexical items which can be easily taught to Indian students through their L1 equivalents at the beginning levels.

The study reported in chapter IV attempted to investigate the effect of transfer on the speech acts of fifteen undergraduate students and also inquired whether there was a need to teach speech acts explicitly in the classroom. Thus, it examines the transfer of discourse competence in terms of the second meaning of discourse. On the basis of the investigation into the five speech acts of requesting, thanking, apologizing, greeting and leave-taking, it was found that learners frequently transfer their L1 socio-cultural norms to the use of speech acts in English. In terms of a desire to maintain one's cultural and ethnic identity, the use of deviant forms may be acceptable in one's own community, but when communicating with native speakers of English, there is a need to employ suitable speech act forms and evidently then, to accommodate the teaching of these speech act forms explicitly in the ESL classroom.

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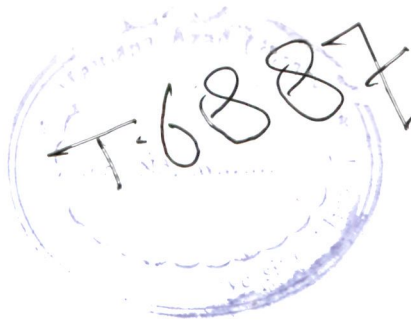
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**ALIGARH MUSLIM UNIVERSITY**  
**ALIGARH (INDIA)**  
**2007**



T6887



**THESIS**

## **CERTIFICATE**

*This is to certify that the Ph. D. thesis "The Effect of L1 Transfer on the Discourse Competence of Undergraduate ESL Students in A. M. U., Aligarh" submitted by Ms. Rizwana Wahid for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy was completed under my supervision, and it is the result of her own endeavour.*

*Kausar Husain*

**DR. KAUSAR HUSAIN**

**SUPERVISOR**

*Dedicated  
To  
My Family*

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*Rizwana Wahid*  
**RIZWANA WAHID**

## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

AMU	:	Aligarh Muslim University
BISC	:	Basic Inter- Personal Communicative Skills
CA	:	Contrastive Analysis
CAH	:	Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis
CALP	:	Cognitive/Academic Language Proficiency
CC	:	Communicative Competence
CLT	:	Communicative Language Teaching
DO	:	Direct Object
EFL	:	English as Foreign Language
ESL	:	English as Second Language
IL	:	Inter-Language
IO	:	Indirect Object
L1	:	First Language
L2	:	Second Language
LD	:	Linking Device
MT	:	Mother Tongue
NL	:	Native Language
SL	:	Second Language
SLA	:	Second Language Acquisition
SOV	:	Subject Object Verb
SVO	:	Subject Verb Object
TL	:	Target Language
UG	:	Universal Grammar
VSO	:	Verb Subject Object

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# *Introduction*



# INTRODUCTION

The present study seeks to examine the effect of L1 transfer on the discourse competence of undergraduate ESL students in A.M.U., Aligarh. When learners learn a second language/foreign language, the similarities and differences between the first language and the second language influence the learning of the target language. This process is termed 'transfer' (Odlin, 1989). Transfer might be a conscious and unconscious process, which operates in the mind of the learner. During the heyday of structuralism, linguists and researchers were of the view that similarities between L1 and L2 create ease while differences between L1 and L2 create difficulty [Lado (1957), Stockwell, Bowen and Martin (1965)]. In other words, close similarities between L1 and L2 (e.g., between lexical items, word-orders, reading and writing systems of L1 and L2) help in second language learning i.e., an Urdu speaking person learning Arabic as his/her second language would be facilitated by the transfer of vocabulary and writing systems. Negative transfer occurs when L2 learners' previous knowledge and performance interfere in L2 learning due to the differences between L1 and L2 [Weinreich (1953), Ard and Homburg (1983), Rutherford (1983) and Jarvis (2000)]. With the rejection of behaviourism and the introduction of cognitivism, the notion of interference of 'L1 habits' in L2 learning was also rejected. However, the role of L1, both negative and positive was again acknowledged and accommodated within a cognitive framework under the influence of later research in SLA. It was found that L1 did have a significant role to play in the subsequent learning of a second/foreign language, since the learners come to the learning task with the background of their previous knowledge in the form of mental schemata and all new knowledge is built upon the already existing knowledge in the mind of the learner. Since L1 constitutes a part of one's previous knowledge, it is bound to influence the learning of a second language. Also, learners' contribution to learning in the

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The first study is the subject of Chapter III of the thesis, in which she studies the role of L1 transfer in the use of conjunctions in running texts through conducting a study on fifteen undergraduate ESL students of A.M.U., Aligarh. They were given three topics on the writing tasks (descriptive, narrative and expository) and were asked to choose one topic from each task and to write first in their L1 (Hindi/Urdu) and then to translate their texts into L2 (English). It was found that they transferred successfully their L1 conjunctions to L2 discourse. The second study is the subject of Chapter IV of the thesis, in which the researcher has examined the effect of transfer on the second meaning of discourse, that is, the transfer of L1 social and cultural norms to L2 discourse: spoken and written. She took fifteen students who performed five written and spoken speech acts: requests, thanks, apologies, greetings and leave-takings. It was found that they transferred their L1 socio-cultural norms and conventions to their L2 discourse. For example, they greet

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The study has a pedagogic orientation. The study reported in chapter III started with the aim to examine whether conjunctions are transferred from L1 to L2, and whether there is a need emphasize the teaching of conjunctions in the ESL classroom as the previous studies have suggested. In Indian universities, English language teaching materials have myriad grammatical exercises on linking devices and conjunctions, and a large amount of time of the academic session is spent on the teaching of these items and on completing these grammatical exercises. It was perceived by the researcher through her own experience and intuition that linking devices, especially conjunctions are successfully transferred from L1 to L2 and the time spent on teaching them may be saved and used in other fields of language learning. Therefore, she tried to find out through her study whether the teaching of conjunctions can be de-emphasized in the ESL classroom pedagogy, and this time be shifted to other fruitful areas, because ESL learners transfer conjunctions from L1 to L2 and can use them correctly and appropriately in their discourse.

The results of the study show that learners transfer various linking devices, that is, adversative, causal, temporal and additive, successfully to L2 from their L1 according to the linguistic and situational context. In the light of the above observation, it is suggested that grammar exercises on the use of linking devices at the undergraduate level be de-emphasized and valuable time spent on these exercises be shifted to other more important areas of vocabulary and syntax and possibly to other types of linking devices, such as English pronouns, ellipsis and substitution which differ from L1 use. Linking devices and especially conjunctions form a small and closed system of lexical items which can be easily taught to Indian students through their L1 equivalents at the beginning levels.

The study reported in chapter IV attempted to investigate the effect of transfer on the speech acts of fifteen undergraduate students and also inquired whether there was a need to teach speech acts explicitly in the classroom. Thus, it examines the transfer of discourse competence in terms of the second meaning of discourse. On the basis of the investigation into the five speech acts of requesting, thanking, apologizing, greeting and leave-taking, it was found that learners frequently transfer their L1 socio-cultural norms to the use of speech acts in English. In terms of a desire to maintain one's cultural and ethnic identity, the use of deviant forms may be acceptable in one's own community, but when communicating with native speakers of English, there is a need to employ suitable speech act forms and evidently then, to accommodate the teaching of these speech act forms explicitly in the ESL classroom.

# *Chapter-I*

# *Transfer*

# **CHAPTER I**

## **TRANSFER**

### **Introduction**

Second language acquisition is concerned with the study of how learners learn a second language after acquiring their first language. When learners learn an additional or second language, the similarities and differences between the first language and the second language influence the learning of the target language. This process is termed 'transfer' (Odlin, 1989). Transfer, derived from the Latin word 'transfere' means 'to carry', 'to bear' or 'to print' or 'to impress' or 'otherwise copy (as a drawing or engraved design) from one surface to another'. Transfer can also refer to "the carry-over or generalization of learned responses from one type of situation to another", especially "the application in one field of study or effort of knowledge, skill power or ability acquired in another". (Webster's Third New World International Dictionary, 1986.)

This chapter is divided into three parts: the first part basically discusses the concept of transfer and reports some theoretical and empirical studies dealing with transfer. The second part discusses the transfer at different levels namely, syntax, semantics, lexis and phonology. The third part mainly deals with discourse transfer in terms of spoken and textual discourse.

### **Transfer in General Terms**

First language transfer is an important characteristic of SLA. Second language learning generally has often been considered the process of transfer (Boxer and Taylor-Hamilton, 2004). Whitney (1881) has used the term transfer for cross-linguistic influences. Transfer, a traditional term from the psychology of

learning, is considered the influence of previous knowledge on a new learning situation. In other words, transfer is a conscious or unconscious process, which arises in the mind of the learner because of the similarities and differences between first language and second language. Odlin (1989) and Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) have claimed that transfer will be significant in learning affected by formal instruction but will be less so in naturalistic second language acquisition. Whereas, in the words of Jakobovits, “The learning of task A will affect the subsequent learning of task B” (1970: 188). Lado has summed up this issue of transfer for learning a second language in the following words, “Those elements that are similar to his native language will be simple for him and those elements that are different will be difficult” (1957: 2). Stockwell, Bowen and Martin (1965) and Kellerman (1995) agree with Fries (1945) and Lado, (1957) that similarities between L1 and L2 create ease and differences create difficulties. This assumption led to the idea that differences rather than similarities between first language and second language constitute an essential part in second language pedagogy. Some researchers are however, of the view that similarities between L1 and L2 sometimes can create difficulties. This assumption has been confirmed by Andersen (1983), Kellerman (1983), Rignbom (1987), Wode (1978), Zobl (1980), Irujo (1986) and Wenden Li (2004). Irujo (1986) observed in an empirical study that the idioms of native language that are similar to the idioms of second language idioms caused more interference than idioms that were different. Kellerman (1995) is of the opinion that both similarities and differences between L1 and L2 can cause transfer. Most researchers however, agree upon the influence of L1 in L2 learning, whether positive or negative or both.

### **Confusion in Defining First Language Transfer**

Since 1970, transfer research has become an important issue of SLA, “In spite of three decades of intensive research, there is still no generally accepted agreement of what transfer in language actually is” (Dechert and Raupach,

1989: IX). Language theorists and researchers have questioned the acceptability of language transfer definitions at different times. Odlin (1989) defines transfer as a process of learning. Schachter (1992) and Selinker (1992) have considered transfer as a constraint that learners use in SLA. Some linguists have conceptualized it as a learning strategy that second language learners employ to cope with gaps in their second language knowledge. Selinker (1972) views transfer as a communication strategy. Taylor (1975), Bialystok (1983), Faerch and Kasper (1983), and O' Malley et al. (1985) also consider it as a learning and communication strategy. Faerch and Kasper state,

“Communication strategies can also result in hypothesis formation: the learner might use his prior L1, IL or contextual knowledge in order to understand second language items which are not yet part of his IL system.”(1983: 54)

There is also the assumption that transfer produces an inert outcome of mixed concepts of NL and IL structures [Jarvis (1998) and Slobin (1993)]. Each concept and definition has its value and can be used in arriving at an adequate definition of transfer. The most commonly held concept of transfer is the one proposed by Odlin (1989: 27),

“Transfer is the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired.”

Behaviourist notion of transfer claims that transfer is primarily a psychological phenomenon, its potential effect on learning may be more or less, depending on the differences of the social setting in which second language learning takes place. According to this notion, a second language learner carries his previous knowledge and performance (habit-formation) of his first language into second language. Kellerman (1984) observes that habit formation transfer is an additive factor in SLA. Contrary to it, Carroll (1968) and Hakuta (1986) found that influence of first language does not correspond with behaviourist notion, and SLA is no longer seen only as a process of habit formation through repeating certain sentences but it is a process of ‘Creative Construction’. Within the cognitivist framework, psycholinguists lay less



emphasis on interference and more emphasis on creativity, developmental processes, learning strategies and the structure of the target language. Husain (1996), considers that difference is a linguistic concept and difficulty a psychological one. So, difficulty can not be predicted from difference. The concept of creative construction theory is supported by Chomsky's theory of 'Universal Grammar'. Gass (1979) and Cook (1985) also have considered UG an essential part in the process of transfer and SLA. According to Meisel (1982), transfer is a 'Creative Construction Process' or a 'Mental Activity' in second language learning.

Therefore, we see that transfer has always remained a topic of debate and intensive research in terms of its role in acquiring a second language.

### **Inter-lingual Transfer and Intra-lingual Transfer**

Kaur (1991) considers transfer as inter-linguistic interference and overgeneralization as intra-linguistic interference. Interlanguage, a term coined by Selinker (1972), means the important linguistic knowledge of the language learner. Intra-lingual transfer does not present first language structures, but the learner generalizes the meaning of second language on the basis of partial exposure and distorts the TL properties in an effort to communicate. On the contrary, Politzer (1965) is of the view that inter-lingual transfer is an important factor in human learning because it works as an intermediate factor through language learning strategies and the learner goes on to complete his/her competence of language through interlanguage system.

Intra-linguistic transfer is a process in which second language learner generalizes a particular rule or item of second language irrespective of the first language (Richard, 1971). It plays a developmental role in language learning.

## **Facilitative Role of Transfer or Positive Transfer**

Many researchers and linguists claim that knowledge of one language makes the study of a closely related language easier [Ringbom (1987), Flashner (1989), Giacalone, Ramat and Bangli (1990) Bayley (1994), and Shirai and Kurono (1998)]. Positive transfer reduces the time needed in second language learning when the vocabulary, word-order, reading and writing systems of first language and second language are similar and the similarity helps in language learning i.e., an Urdu speaking person learning Arabic as a second language would be facilitated by his previous knowledge in learning his second language because of the similarities between the vocabulary and the writing systems of the first language and the second language. Ausbel states that

“... past experience ... has positive effects on new meaningful learning and retention by virtue of its impact on relevant properties of cognitive structure. If this is true, all meaningful learning necessarily involves transfer.” (1968: 165)

In recent times, evidence for positive transfer has been reported by Long (1996) and Oliver (1995, 2000). Positive evidence is the input or models that language learners receive about the target language (Oliver, 2000). Among other recent studies, Revesz (2004) found that transfer plays an important role of facilitation in second language learning and Salaberry (2004) also supports the concept of direct transfer on Spanish first language speakers learning Portuguese. Meziarni (2004) found evidence of positive transfer rather than negative transfer in an empirical piece of research on the acquisition of the English tense system by Moroccan learners of English. To sum up, it is found that transfer is a natural phenomenon and a helping factor in second language learning.

## **First Language Interference or Negative Transfer**

It is also a most commonly held view that learners' previous knowledge and performance interfere in L2 learning due to the differences of L1 and L2 [Weinreich (1953), Ard and Homburg (1983), Rutherford (1983) and Jarvis (2000)]. Duskova (1969) have found lexical and grammatical errors led by L1 interference in an empirical study on Czech adult learners of English. According to Zobl (1980, 1982) a little similarity or greater differences between L1 and L2 lead to more transfer. Language theorists and researchers have argued about how much L1 interference leads to errors in L2 learning. George (1971) has claimed that one third of errors in SLA have been caused by native language interference. Whereas Dulay and Burt (1974a) have claimed that only three percent of errors in learning process are interference errors.

One of the most recent studies on L1 interference, Helms-Park (2001) has investigated the role of L1 lexical grammar transfer which causes difficulty but sometimes it results in ease in over-generalized rules of lexical grammar. The findings have come out through Mann-Whitney comparisons between Hindi/Urdu speakers and Vietnamese speakers' proficiency and performances and it has also found that their performances differed significantly. Thus, the role of L1 negative transfer in L2 learning has always been an issue of interest. Long (1996), and Oliver (2000) have opined that L1 interference has abundant evidence in SLA.

## **Theoretical Studies**

Some important studies among the many theoretical ones are the following:

Widdowson (1975) is a great theorist who has discussed the substantial and potential role of translation in the learning and the teaching of second

language classroom setting. Particularly, he has focused on the teaching of scientific and technical discourse. According to him, scientific discourse has the same communicative acts in every language but they are communicated through different languages. He has also emphasized similarities of the three levels between L1 and L2 such as: 1) structural (similarity of surface structure/grammar), 2) deep structural (similarity of semantic and phonetic) and 3) discoursal or rhetorical (similarity of communication for rhetorical functions) in second language/foreign language teaching.

Meisel et al. (1981) in their theoretical research on immigrant students, has focused on socio-psychological aspects in transfer. According to them, if a learner does not know the second language community, he shows more transfer due to cultural variables. He (learner) feels ease in the language community with which he has relationship.

Cummins (1984) has proposed a general proficiency notion for academic setting. He emphasizes the importance of L1 proficiency, knowledge and skills for L2 learning. Transfer plays a significant role in context-reduced classroom settings, because of shared academic conventions between L1 and L2.

Cook (2001) has discussed the maximum use of L1 in L2 classroom setting. He says that second language classroom is a place where L1 and L2, both languages are present permanently; and he maintains that both languages are used to achieve competence in L2. According to him, L1 use is necessary to learn L2 because the adequate purpose of learning L2 is to provide learners creative and strategic system, which make them capable to operate L1 and L2 simultaneously and spontaneously rather than insisting that they should become native speakers of second language.

Turnbull (2001) corroborates Cook's idea, agreeing that L2 teachers should increase L1 use in classroom because it would give profit to L2 learners to improve and gain L2 proficiency and competence; and he also considers the

role and the place of teacher in the classroom in using students' first language properly so that the teacher gives them optimum benefits of L1 in learning L2.

## **Empirical Studies**

There are a number of empirical studies on transfer. Some important studies have been discussed in the following.

Schachter (1974) compared the use of relative clauses and subordinate clauses in English by Persian, Arabic, Japanese and Chinese speakers and discovered an indirect influence of first language in the form of structural avoidance. She found that Japanese and Chinese speaking learners usually avoid relative clauses and subordinate clauses more in comparison to Persian and Arabic speaking learners. Chinese and Japanese students use the relative clauses when they are completely sure to be correct. So, it was found that Chinese and Japanese learners make fewer errors than Persian and Arabic speaking students in terms of their clauses.

Selinker et al. (1975) have categorized three dimensions of transfer:

1. Lexical language transfer,
2. Surface structure grammatical transfer, and
3. Deep structure grammatical transfer at syntactic level.

By examining their data in a French immersion setting on the students of an English language elementary school in Toronto Canada, they discovered that transfer at any level leads to errors but at the same time, it is a helping factor in second language learning.

Hakuta (1976) in his study compared the use of relative clauses between a five-year-old Japanese girl and a Spanish girl learning English as their second language. It was discovered that the structural pattern which differs from those of the first language, is avoided in the beginning of learning and is learned later in the learning process.

Sridhar (1980) also proposed the same idea of structural avoidance. Among the other studies related to structural avoidance are those carried out by Sato (1982) and Gass, Mackey and Pica (1998). They observed that second language learners neglect those structural patterns that are alien to their first language. The main reason of avoidance is the mismatches between learners' IL and TL. Liao and Fukuya (2004) investigated and found the avoidance of phrasal verbs due to the differences between first language and second language in the case of Chinese learners of English.

It is difficult to report all studies related to the field of transfer because in recent times, language transfer has become a major issue in the study of SLA process. However, some more studies are briefly described in the following:

Jarvis (2000) studied three substantial causes of first language transfer:

1. Inter language and first language similarities,
2. Inter language and first language differences, and
3. Inter language and first language performance similarities in English lexical system on finish-speaking and Swedish-speaking Finns at different stages of learning.

He saw a correlation between first language transfer and second language proficiency in his empirical study and stated the following:

- “1. First language influence decreases with increasing second language proficiency.
2. First language influence remains constant with increasing second language proficiency.
3. First language remains constant with increasing second language proficiency.
4. First language influence ultimately decreases, but nonlinearly.
5. First language influence ultimately increases, but nonlinearly.
6. First language influence ultimately never decreases nor increases, but its presence continually fluctuates as second language proficiency increases.” (Jarvis, 2000: 246-247)

Upton and Lee-Thompson (2001) investigated the role of L1 in reading as a strategy to understand L2 text through an empirical research on ten

Chinese speaking and ten Japanese speaking university students at intermediate, advanced and post-ESL level. For this, they used think-aloud protocols and retrospective interviews and it was found that L2 readers make proper use of their L1 to solve sentence and comprehension level problems and in reading behaviour.

Tickoo (2001) investigated the past tense markers in written discourse (120 narratives) of Chinese learners learning English at the age of twelve, fifteen and twenty in Hong Kong. Firstly, the data was analyzed through quantitatively and it was found that with the help of L1, there were no development sequences in past tense marking. But reanalyzing the data through qualitative assessment, it was acknowledged that learners used past tense markers in their L2 discourse with the help of L1.

Again, Tickoo (2005) studied the selective past tense marking in written discourse (prose narrative) but this time the subjects were low intermediate level Indian learners of English as a second language and they used Hindi/Urdu as their L1, which they also transferred as a learning strategy in classroom. This study examined the adequacy of the process explanations of past tense marking use from performance data. The practical explanations, which were presented in selective past tense marking, confirmed the use of L1. This finding proved that these workable explanations might be used as instructional method in past tense learning in second language classroom. By this study, it was identified that the explanations were also viable in developmental processes in second language learning. Tickoo's study proved its viability for better understanding of learning English as a second language.

There is no doubt that L1 transfer in second language learning is an area of SLA which has gained more popularity than other areas since 1980s. In recent times, its popularity has increased more, and myriad studies of transfer have been conducted in every aspect of language learning whether the focus is linguistic or functional. Thoms et al. (2005) studied the function of L1 transfer in L2 in on-line computer chatting task. For this study, they made an empirical

framework of socio-linguistic and theoretical function and use of L1 (English) to L2 (Chinese, German and Spanish) in the form of a jigsaw task of computer chatting. The participants were asked to perform the jigsaw task on-line. The collected data of chat logging was analyzed through discourse analysis and descriptive strategies. It was found that participants used L1 for several functions and degrees across all three languages. It was also found that use of L1 was affected by individual's strategies to perform a task.

Nicoladis (2006) proposed the hypothesis that the cause of L1 transfer is not the similarities and differences between two languages but the overlap or ambiguity between L1 and L2; and L1 transfer occurs because of ambivalence in one of the languages (L1 and L2). To prove this hypothesis, his study investigated obscurity/overlap of adjective-noun orders resulting from transfer in English and French. As English language has only adjective-noun strings whereas French has two orders: 1) adjective-noun and 2) noun-adjective. The latter is used frequently in French. For his empirical study, 35 French-English bilinguals and 35 English monolinguals and 10 French monolinguals were asked to call pictures by their names using adjective-noun orders. In the production of names according to English adjective-noun string by French speakers, the influence of L1 was predicted through overlap hypothesis. It was also found that bilinguals reverse the adjective-noun order more than monolinguals. It was concluded that noun adjective string transfer/cross-linguistic transfer is a part of producing L2 speech.

Some other researchers like Zwanziger et al. present different views about L1 transfer. Zwanziger et al. (2005) examined cross language influences in morpho-syntactic structure of L2 in six bilingual (English and Inuktitut) children taking a clue from previous studies that the morpho-syntactic structure of one language affects the morpho-syntactic structure of other language. To see the cross linguistic influence of morph syntax, they checked subject omission in learner's language development. English and Inuktitut (with different morpho-syntactic structures) served their purpose. They



analyzed the subjects' discourse patterns and it was found that bilingual children learn like monolingual and they have knowledge and ability to use the second language. On the basis of their data they suggested that cross-linguistic influence does not work universally and L2 can be learned without L1 influence.

Thus, one finds that transfer always has been an issue of importance in SLA research. Sometimes its usefulness is accepted and sometimes it is considered a negative transfer influence. Whatever the issue may be, its importance is widely acknowledged and the concept of transfer helps in a better understanding of second language learning.

## **Contrastive Analysis**

In the 60s and 70s, contrastive analysis was introduced as a pedagogical tool and since then, it has become an important subject of research for linguists and language analysts. The concept of contrastive analysis is that similarities between native language and target language create facility in learning a target language while differences between two languages create difficulty leading to errors. So, in order to predict the areas of difficulty or error, learner's first language should be compared with the second language. This concept or procedure has been called 'Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis' (Kelly, 1969).

Contrastive analysis has claimed that first language interferes in second language learning. Before the 1960s, this assumption had been supported by Sweet (1899), Jespersen (1912), Palmer (1917), Fries (1945), and Lado (1957). Contrastive analysis has tried to predict first language interference errors. In the words of Lado,

“The teacher who has made a comparison of the foreign language with the native language of the students will know better what the real problems are and can provide materials for teaching them.” (1957: 2)

Contrastive analysis hypothesis has a weak and a strong form. The strong form of contrastive analysis hypothesis assumes that all L2 errors are because of L1 and aims at identifying the area of difficulty and interference errors by comparing two languages. Through it, teachers or linguists can provide pedagogic materials to second language students to minimize errors. But every error is not the result of first language interference and when contrastive analysis is used to predict only those errors which are because of first language interference, the concept is called the weak form of contrastive analysis hypothesis. Oller and Ziahosseiny (1970) proposed a moderate version of contrastive analysis hypothesis, on the basis of the finding that spelling errors are more difficult than interference errors for Roman and non-Roman learners.

### **Rejection of Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis**

In the late 1970s, contrastive analysis hypothesis was attacked and opposed by mentalist theorists of language who held the view that first language skills do not influence second language acquisition. 'Creative Construction Theory' was presented as an alternative of contrastive analysis hypothesis and was considered compatible with 'Identity Hypothesis' or 'Universalistic Hypothesis' or Chomsky's 'Mentalist Theory' of language. Chomsky (1981) stressed on the cognitive power of the human mind and the activation of the individual's rational power and creativity in SLA in the form of universal grammar. Mentalist theory confirms the fruitfulness of UG arguing that man has creative power and he learns language in the same way as he acquired his first language. Creative Construction theory rejected the behaviourist notion of Skinner's 'Verbal Behaviour' (1957). The theory of transfer along with the notion of imitation, practice and reinforcement are not compatible with the creative process of learning a language. Mentalist theories argue that second language learners arrange and generalize second language rules, which they

hear or speak and construct its structure, like a child acquires his/her first language. They do not carry their previous habits but they learn new habits in a second language afresh. Creative construction theory emphasizes the learning of the structural patterns and learning strategies of the second language rather than similarities and differences of first and second language. According to this theory, the errors that occur during the acquisition of a second language are due to the structural patterns of target language and learning and not by the interference of first language. Hence 'interference/transfer of first language was of no importance whatsoever', Hatch (1977: 17).

Dulay and Burt's studies (1974a) supported the creative construction theory. In their empirical study, three types of errors in spoken English of Spanish speaking children were analyzed. Their analysis found 85 percent of errors, which were developmental or inter-lingual errors that were not because of transfer but were found in L2 acquisition, 3 percent were inter-lingual or interference errors and 12 percent of errors were unique. Their research demonstrated that language learning does not depend on transfer but on organization of second language in the same way as first language acquisition. However, other studies on L2 errors did not support Dulay and Burt's claims. the average figure that comes out for L1 transfer in L2 learning is approximately one third or thirty three percent.

### **Rebirth of Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis**

Since 1980s, contrastive analysis has attracted attention again in a new guise. Though the contrastive analysis hypothesis is rejected, the importance of transfer again has been considered in all subsystems of language: grammar, syntax, vocabulary, phonology and semantics (Kleirmann, 1978). Therefore, contrastive analysis has again become an important aspect of second language learning and teaching. This view is held by a number of researchers such as, Jansen, Lalleman and Muysken (1981), Ard and Homburg (1983), Andrews

(1984), Appel (1984), White (1985), Ringbom (1986), Schumann (1986) and Singler (1988). With widespread acceptance of L1 transfer, it has been considered as a mentalist activity in which learner mentally organizes L2 structures (Meisel, 1982). Second language learners use transfer as a learning strategy when they think it right and when they are ready to use it. But it is evident that there should be some similarity between structures of both languages (L1 and L2) and when structural patterns of first language and second language differ too much, the role of first language transfer in second language learning seems to be impossible.

In the SLA process, transfer has now been recognized as a strategy. Dulay and Burt (1974a, 1974b), Schachter (1974), Hakuta (1976), Appel (1984), and Liao and Fukuya (2004) have discovered that second language learners omit or avoid to use those structural patterns in second language which are unfamiliar to their first language and interlanguage. They use the same strategies as they have used in their first language acquisition. Through avoidance and omission, learners simplify their second language patterns and rules in the initial stage of learning, if learners make errors, these errors in their interlanguage, come within the category of the developmental errors, which help in learning [Dulay and Burt (1974b) and Politzer (1965)].

## **Transfer at Different Levels**

Transfer has been studied at all the levels of language: phonological, lexical, syntactic and semantic. The different types of transfer have been discussed in the following section.

### **Syntactic Transfer**

Syntax (formation of sentence or utterance) is one of the most important systems of language which influences SL learning negatively and positively

(Thompson, 1978). Structural patterns of language such as: word-order, phrases, clauses, conjunctions, negation and interrogation have been shown to be transferred to L2 performance. Therefore, syntactic transfer has remained an important subject of SLA research. Here, syntax transfer has been discussed with its different aspects.

### **Word-order Transfer**

Each language has its own word-sequence pattern. Basically a wide population of languages in the world has SVO, SOV and VSO word-order pattern. Most Indian languages have SOV order while English has SVO order. Hindi/Urdu, the first language of a vast majority of Indians has a flexible word-order pattern whereas English has a comparatively rigid word-order which creates difficulty for Indians learners. Many scholars have debated and researched extensively and intensively on this topic. Some argue that two languages of the same word sequence might differ in their own rigidity. Thompson (1978) compared English and Russian language [both language with the same word order (SVO)] on the basis of their rigidity and he found the Russian language is more free than English. He also claimed that the word order of the Russian language changes according to the speaker's background due to its flexibility, while English language always remains rigid with a single word sequence (SVO). Hindi/Urdu speaking students often do not recognize direct and indirect object narration because there is no specific sequence of objects (Direct object and Indirect object) in respect of flexibility. Hindi speaking students frequently use sequences such as:

‘I gave a pen him’ in stead of

‘(I gave a pen to him)’.

Contrarily, it has also been found that in the case of younger students, rigid word-order helps in discourse (Pienemann, 1981) and free word-order creates complexities in SLA (Slobin, 1982). Also, it has been argued that two different

word-sequences have no evidence of transfer e.g., Hindi/Urdu (SOV) learners feel no difficulty in English (SVO) sentence-making. Rutherford claims, “Japanese learners of English do not at any time produce writing in which the verb is wrongly placed finally” (1983: 367). Le Compagnon (1984) found transfer at the level of word order in the English language of French learners. A French sentence was translated into English by a French learner as the following:

‘He me explained the rule’.

(Il m’ explique la regle).

Thus, the effect of transfer in word order is clear despite of varied opinions.

### **Negation Transfer**

Negation is a transferable factor in SLA and researchers have compared negation in TL and NL. ‘No’ and ‘Not’ simply serve as negators but aside from these words, sometimes prefixes and suffixes also are used as negators (e.g., impossible, unable, dishonest, non-vegetarian and senseless etc.). The best example of acquisition of negation in ESL of German students has been presented by Wode (1981 and 1983). He studied the developmental sequences of negation at three levels:

***Initial level:*** Use of ‘no’ (one word).

‘No finish’ – (Not finished)

‘No drink some milk’ – (I don’t want to drink milk) (1981: 88).

It is a universal stage of learning that is found in the learning process of all learners’ natural settings.

***Second level:*** Use of Subject + ‘not’

‘It’s not raining.’

‘That’s no good.’ (1981: 88)

***Third level:*** Interlanguage negation

'me no close the window.'

(I am not closing the window.)

'Ich have not home run.'

(I have not made a home run.) (1981: 88)

All these types of negation applied by students are preverbal negation but Wode found that German learners of ESL use postverbal negation because first language rule interferes with SL rule of negation (in German negation is postverbal) e.g.

'Heiko like not the school.'

(Heiko mag die schule nicht.)

'You go not fishing.'

(Du gehst nicht fischen) (1981: 88).

Thus, the changing sequence of negation provides a way of learning to its learners. The use of the word 'no' at the initial stage makes way for other negators such as 'not' 'isn't' 'haven't' etc. Intra-sentence level negation takes place after initial learning ('no' and 'not').

Schachter (1986) made an empirical piece of research on Jorge (a Colombian speaking learner of English) and found that Jorge continued to use single word negation 'no' as well as 'not' and 'never' in the second and third stages of learning. Schachter pointed out that the main reason for this was lexical similarity of English and Spanish languages. Jorge used 'no' where he didn't find the full response of something and he liked to use 'not' for negative response.

### **Interrogation Transfer**

When learners apply questions to gain information and other types of knowledge, they use words: who, where, why, how or helping verb such as: do, does, has, have, can, may etc. This formation in a sentence or utterance is

called interrogation. Learners learn use of interrogation through different developmental stages:

**First stage:** For formation of questions, a learner uses simple interrogative sentences e.g.,

‘Where going?’

(Where are you going?)

**Second stage:** In the second stage, they use more complex statements or expressions with the required subject (Noun and Pronoun) e.g.,

‘Where you live?’

(Where do you live?)

‘You need something?’

(Do you need something?)

**Third stage:** In the third developmental stage, learners express questions with verb and subject e.g.,

‘Where do you live?’

‘Do you need something?’

Hence, it is found that there is a considerable evidence of syntactic transfer in SLA in spite of varied opinions about developmental sequences. Sometimes personality factors in learners create different variations. Age is also an important factor in language learning. Children learn syntactic patterns more easily than adult learners.

## **Semantic Transfer**

Transfer at the semantic level does not occur so frequently as other forms of transfer. Semantic transfer takes place when second language learners do not know the meaning of lexical items and they use the meaning from L1 and correspond it to L2 at the time of speaking and writing. It is definite that similarities and dissimilarities between word forms; and word meanings play



an important role in second language learning. First language semantic structure affects L2 performance of learners. Pfaff (1984) studied semantic transfer in a comparative study of German of Greek and Turkish students. Greek students use 'warum' (why) in German for both meanings 'why' and 'because' (deshalb) while Turkish children make a difference between the two words because in Greek, there is a single word for both 'why' and 'because'; and Turkish language has two lexical items for these two particular words in English.

Indian students while learning English often make semantic errors in the case of pronouns at the initial stage of learning and sometimes they use only 'he' for three different genders (masculine, feminine and neutral) because in Hindi/Urdu, there is a single corresponding lexical item (woh) for all the singular pronouns of the third person. On the other hand, the structural characteristic of grammatical gender in Hindi/Urdu nouns influences cognition of corresponding nouns in English. Hindi/Urdu language recognizes every noun as either masculine or feminine. For example, 'syllabus' is considered masculine and 'class' is considered feminine. English language does not classify every noun on the basis of gender (Clarke et al., 1981).

Language and culture are associated with each other (Bloom, 1981). Structural characteristics are often derived from cultural traditions and sometimes, different cultural values affect mental association in the mind of learner. As mentioned before, in Indian culture, it is traditional to give more respect to elders. For example, according to regard, there are three lexical items (tu, tum and aap) for a single pronoun 'you'. This cultural characteristic may confuse learners and they seek a corresponding lexical pronoun in L2 also.

For the cross-linguistic study of syntax and morphology, the semantic case is useful (Fillmore, 1968). For example, Indian speakers of English face difficulties in possessive construction. English language has possessive inflection (Jack's) as well as prepositional construction (of Jack) while

Hindi/Urdu language has only the prepositional construction (Jack ka=of Jack). Urdu and German learners make the same errors at the time of using English preposition (Ijaz, 1986).

The standard English sentence:

‘It is five o’clock by your watch’, is often changed as the following by an Indian learner:

‘It is five o’clock in your watch.’

The meaning of ‘in’ is ‘being inside’ so learners transfer it. Indian speakers often produce sentences like these:

‘I have eaten my medicine.’

‘I have taken my breakfast.’

Instead of:

‘I have taken my medicine.’

‘I have eaten my breakfast.’

Learners make mistakes because Hindi/Urdu language has only one meaning (khana) for both words- ‘to eat’ and ‘to take’.

Thus, it is clear that semantic transfer occurs often when second language learners are not aware about the exact meaning of the word.

## **Lexical Transfer**

When second language learners do not know the actual word in L2, they use the word from their L1 and this process is called lexical transfer or code switching. The lexical transfer as an interlanguage strategy is to cope with the relative lack of knowledge of the second language and helps in the rapid learning of the second language (Leontine, 2000). Hakuta (1976) gave some examples of lexical transfer in the empirical study of a five-year-old Japanese girl learning English. He gave the example of her using an L1 word to the L2 sentence:

‘I just machigaeru it.’

Here, the girl has transferred native word 'machigaeru' for mistake. Celya and Naves (2004) studied Catalan Spanish bilingual learners and they found that L1 influences L2 proficiency and writing. If the native language has lexical similarity with the target language, L1 lexical items influence L2 cognates (Schumann, 1986 Ard and Homburg, 1983). Spanish and French languages have lexical and syntactic similarities. Despite the facilitation, the generalization of lexical cognates creates difficulty, for example, one language *with different lexical items, might be learned easily and the other language* without similarity may produce problems in learning. Often similar lexical items have semantic difference. For instance, French 'prevenir' and English 'prevent' are cognates but semantically 'prevenir' refers 'to warn' and 'prevent' refers 'to stop'; so learners make mistakes through faulty lexical recognition (Holems, 1977). Semantically similar cognates or different word forms may produce ambiguities because of some grammatical rules and lexical transfer may also take place due to morphological items, which carry the semantic similarity (Ringbom, 1986). For example, Urdu speaking students make errors in sentences such as:

'He has control upon his language.' instead of

'He has control upon his tongue.'

This error is made because in Urdu, there is a single lexical item (zaban) for both 'language' and 'tongue'. Hence there are many reasons behind lexical transfer.

Some linguists and researchers find that developing language awareness and strategic competence in language learners would improve lexical abilities. They consider lexical borrowing is an important element in transfer and focus on its importance in the learning of word formation in a second language.

Yet, despite different views on lexical transfer, it is found that lexical cognates influence comprehension as well as production, and despite causing difficulties at times, transfer might also work as an interlanguage strategy in the developmental stages of learning and in the learning of vocabulary. Lexical

recognition facilitates in accessing information related to syntax, morphology and semantics and remains an important aspect of L1 transfer

## **Phonological Transfer**

Phonology and phonetics (study of sounds) are substantial aspects of language study. Phonological transfer has received much attention of researchers because adult learners transfer extensively from their L1 phonological systems to L2 pronunciation and it occurs more frequently than with other levels of transfer. Sounds of the first language differ in physical characteristics (e.g., accent, intonation, articulation and rhythm) from those of the second language. According to cross-linguistic studies of two languages, sounds of one language seem to be similar but actually these are different in segmental, supra-segmental and paralinguistic features. Actually phonetic and phonemic differences between two languages influence inter-lingual identification of sounds. Archibald (1998) has discussed the nature of interlanguage grammatical position related to second language phonology and the learning of segments, syllables and metrical structure.

According to Shackle (1987), Indian phonological system is different from English system as English system has 22 vowels and diphthongs, and 24 consonants while Hindi language has 10 vowels and 40 different consonants. Further, it is said that there is some distinction between the two phonological systems,

“Sets of aspirated and un-aspirated consonants are carefully distinguished, and in place of the English alveolar series /t/, /d/, there is a series of dentals produced with the blade of the tongue behind the teeth, /t/, /t<sup>h</sup>/, /d/, /d /, /d<sup>h</sup>/, and the typically Indian retroflex series produced with the tip of the tongue curled back behind the alveolar ridge, /t/, /t<sup>h</sup>/, /d/, /d<sup>h</sup>/.”(1987: 171)

Indian learners of English sometimes cannot distinguish between sounds of NL and TL (vowels and consonants). They make segmental and

para-linguistic transfer of /w/ for /v/ as in 'wife' and /th/ for /θ/ as in 'this'. They pronounce 'ghost' (ghost) instead of /gəvst/. But there is also a contradiction related to phonological transfer. Some researchers have observed that transfer at phonological level is not so important because it helps in the production of the target language sounds without any problem. Fledge, Mackey and Meador (1999) found that second language learners do not face a problem in producing and perceiving sounds and found that Italian speakers of English can perceive and pronounce English vowel and consonants like native English speakers. There is an argument of another kind, that individual intelligence and rational power also recognizes and produces sounds with one's own capacity and sensitivity of phonetics. Mann (1986) has pointed out that Japanese speakers try to reach at the right pronunciation closer to native language speakers. Thus, pronunciation errors depend on one's personal sense and one's personal learning power. Many second language learners learn the phonetic differences of two languages and reach native like pronunciation.

Besides segmental and paralinguistic features, a second language learner has to learn supra-segmental features (accent, intonation and rhythm etc.) of the target language. Successful oral communication depends on the proper articulation of English speech sounds, correct accent/stress and intonation with due regard to stressing the correct syllable. A syllable is the minimum rhythmic unit of spoken language consisting of a vowel or a sustained consonant often accompanied by un-sustained consonants. Stress gives shape to words and it also changes the form of the word.

It has been observed that the first language influences the stress patterns of the second language. Second language learners do not place stress on the right syllable due to their interlanguage interference, and listeners misperceive the word. Bansal (1976) is of the view that Indian learners of English show their poor presentation of words in their production and listeners do not recognize their meanings and ideas. For example, Indian learners stress the first syllable even in words (nouns, verbs) starting with prefixes such as:

“Income, “Because, “Begin.’

As the use of “Because’ in the following sentence:

‘I am here because the car has not arrived’, which can be consequently misperceived by listeners as:

‘I am here we cause the car has not arrived.’

Thus, listeners identify verbs as nouns and nouns as verbs and the meaning is distorted. Verb/noun stress shift in English in words such as: Con’duct/Conduct and Im’port/Import is not employed by Indian speakers and causes problems of intelligibility.

Rickering and Wiltshere (2000) have also considered the importance of the pitch sounds in Indian English teaching. Different pitches of the voice combine to form patterns of pitch variation or tones, which together constitute the intonation of a language. The pitch of the voice is determined by the frequency of the vibration of the vocal cords. Thus, intonation and tone determine the significance of the phoneme and convey the function and the meaning of a word and a sentence. An ordinary example of phonemic importance in the Indian context is that if the word ‘hai’ (is) is produced with a high pitch or a longer, it will become ‘hain’ (are). Intonational features convey the speakers’ emotional and functional status, in addition to their gesture; their body language and their attitude. They also help in understanding the openings and closures of conversation. Brazil, Coulthard and Johns (1980) point out that intonation manages the turns and functions of speaking. For instance, the falling intonation is used with question tags (when the speaker expects the listener to agree with him) e.g.,

‘It was a good film, wasn’t it?’ and the rising tone in ‘yes/no’ type of questions e.g.,

‘Are they coming?’ The answer may be in the affirmative or negative.

Similarity and dissimilarity between intonation features of L1 and L2 can cause changes in the function of the sentence. For example, a request or a polite sentence can become an order if the speaker uses a falling tone. The first

language affects the production of L2 [Purschel (1975), Williams (1982), Rickering and Wiltse (2000)]. The influence of supra-segmental features works in the production and function of L2 however, it is also a controversial issue and many believe that it is not such a crucial factor. It has been found that Hindi-speaking learners with their L1 accent, tone and pitch, may communicate successfully with others (based on personal observation).

## **Discourse Transfer**

The area of discourse transfer is complex to study. However, it is one of the most important fields of research in second language acquisition, as discourse competence is concerned with both structural and non-structural areas of language. Today contrastive study of discourse has acquired rapid growth. It has been found that cross-linguistic and cross-cultural differences in discourse, may affect production as well as comprehension. Native language may interfere in interpreting conversation in second language and when native language patterns influence learners' second language learning negatively, they may violate coherence (structural) and cultural values such as politeness in apologies, requests, greetings, refusals etc. (non-structural). Thus, discourse violation is more serious than phonetic and syntactic transfer because it affects 'presentation of self' (Richards, 1980).

Among bilingual users of language, two languages and two cultures come together and second language learners do not share the cultural beliefs of native speakers, so that they misunderstand native speakers' communicative meaning, attitude and behaviour. Second language learners' cultural attitudes and rules and conventions, which are different from those of native speakers, also create ambiguity. For example, an Arab speaker who gives a subordinate position to women takes a woman's freedom and openness as an offensive matter whilst in English Community, it is a very common and fashionable attitude (based on personal observation). So the conversational attitude of

these two communicators related to women's status might be affected by cross-cultural values.

Second language learners may misinterpret coherence of L2 discourse and feel difficulty in grasping the actual meaning of what the speaker/writer is saying. Hence, here the influence of transfer on both aspects of discourse (structural as well as non-structural) is discussed in cross-cultural and cross-structural/linguistic context.

## **Cross-Cultural Discourse Transfer**

Second language learners' understanding of their own culture interferes in the production and in the interpretation of native speakers' cultural beliefs and behavior. Hence, the production and interpretation of speech acts and stylistic variants are discussed here with respects to spoken and written communication.

### **Speech Acts**

ESL students have to learn different speech acts to be proficient speakers and writers in a second language. Each language has its different speech acts and their different functions. As a word of thanks in one culture may be an apology in another culture or a request in one culture may be a threat in another. Thus, in one society, a statement, attitude and style of second language learners may be taken in a negative sense and the same attitude might be taken in a positive sense in another culture and society [Brown and Levinson (1978), Gumperz (1982), Gass and Varonis (1991), Selinker (1992) and Schegloff et al. (2002)]. So, Tang (2006) has advocated the learning of cultural norms and rules beyond behaviourist norms. His study emphasizes 'cultural mind' in discourse processes so that learners learn cultural values.



Indian and Arab speakers use more modal forms in imperative and interrogative requests than English and German speakers. Scarcella and Brunak (1981) have discovered that Arab learners of English make requests in their own style, depending on whether the listener is a superior/senior or a subordinate/junior. Indian learners make use of more polite language both in written (letter writing) and in spoken discourse because in Indian culture, it is the belief that one should give respect to elders and strangers. So, Indian speakers communicating with English speakers are found to be very formal even in informal settings. They make frequent use of modals such as may, might, can, could and would in their communicative mood, whether it is conversation or writing. German and Russian speakers appear to make direct use of requests in their communication [Kasper (1981) and Thomas (1983)]. The study of indirectness or directness in requests often creates grammatical problems, and changes the mood and meaning. Therefore, non-native speakers either avoid using the relevant form, or sometimes they produce the wrong form and misinterpret even simple forms such as: please, kindly etc.

Studies have been conducted to examine how non-native speakers interpret and produce the speech act of request and refusal [Scarcella (1979), Walters (1979), Kasper (1981), Beebe et al. (1990), Li (2000) and Kobayashi and Rinnert (2003)]. Japanese speakers are considered cool and polite but also insincere and rude because they start their conversation with personal information (status, education, job, etc) of interlocutors and in English community, it is seen as a matter of threat and offence (Loveday, 1982). Indian students are seen as polite even in refusals and complaints. Often ESL students misuse and mismatch the use of apologetic forms in their conversation with native speakers. Indian, Japanese and Thai ESL students use inappropriate apologetic formulas frequently. For example, an apologetic response (sorry) of Japanese student to English speaker's statement, 'I have so much homework to do' remains absurd (Borkin and Reinhart, 1978). This happens because there is a big difference between apologetic forms of these two languages.

Indian students in class-settings, often give small responses to their teachers like, 'sorry sir/madam, pardon sir, yes sir, no sir, and O. K. sir', in place of complete and long answers (based on personal observation). Indian students also demonstrate insufficient verbal participation in the classroom where they must speak in front of other students and teachers. From this, the idea of limited cognitive power and insincerity may be drawn (Philips, 1972).

Speech acts such as requests, refusals and apologies have not only drawn the attention of researchers but greetings also have been found varying in production as well in interpretation cross-culturally [Scarcella and Brunak (1981) and Ferguson (1981)]. English language shows variable patterns of greetings according to time, occasion and situation etc. while Arabic and Hindi language have some fixed patterns. When native Hindi speakers say in greeting 'Hello, Good Night' and 'Hello, O.K.,' it becomes absurd and unfamiliar to English native speakers (based on personal experience). Hence, different speech acts; their interpretations and functions pose some additional efforts for ESL students in communicating in natural settings.

The above shows that it is necessary to learn second language cultural rules and values so that learners may present themselves appropriately and they can protect themselves from misconceptions and misinterpretations. Carter et al. (2005) have also emphasized the teaching of second language culture in the classroom.

In written communication, similar views have been presented by Al-Ali Mohammed (2006). He conducted a study on pragmatic strategies in the letters of applications written by Jordanian Arabic English learners to investigate whether second language learners are competent in using politeness strategies in their L2. A corpus of 90 job applications written by ninety candidates was collected and analyzed in terms of Brown and Levinson's model (1987) of politeness. It was found that bilinguals use certain strategies that native speakers do not frequently use. Bilinguals try to avoid negative politeness and in return they make use of inappropriate positive politeness strategies. The

results suggested that the use of inappropriate politeness strategies is the cause of learners' ignorance of second language cultural norms. The familiar cultural values of other community are beneficial in writing essays, narratives and stories in L2 but lack of knowledge and familiarity with another culture breaks the structural organization, because learners make errors in interpreting the context of discourse (Rinnert and Kobayashi, 1999). Steffensen et al. (1979) conducted an empirical study of discourse context using two passages; one was about wedding in United States and the other was about wedding in India. The participants were Indian and American students. They found that Indian students interpreted a wedding in the Indian context correctly and early in comparison to American students because Indian students were familiar with the cultural beliefs and conventions of marriages in India. As a result, linguists and researchers have focused on the teaching and learning of target language cultural rules and norms.

### **Cross-Structural Discourse Transfer**

Second language writing ability determines the proficiency level of discourse in L2. But most second language writers face complexities involved in acquiring native-like writing competence in a second language because of cross-linguistic differences. A number of studies have found the influence of cultural and structural knowledge of L1 in L2 written discourse. [Kaplan (1966), Winfield and Barnes-Felfeli (1982), Hinds (1983 and 1984), Leki (1991) and Connor et al. (1994)].

Hinkel (1994) says if L1 writing students are familiar with L2 comprehension and conversational style, it plays a facilitative role in the academic, professional and personal writing ability. In a recent study, Carson (2001) found the effective role of L1 in the essay writing ability of second language learners by comparing a direct and a translated mode and he found that ESL students were more comfortable in a translated mode than a direct

mode and L1 is beneficial in improving L2 writing ability. Writers who are able and competent in L1 writing are also proved good at L2 writing [Cumming, (1988) and Whalen, (1993)]. Dehghanpisheh (1978) found that Persian writer's L1 ability helps them to link simple and short sentences in developmental sequences of L2 writing. However, it was found that they use more conjunctions such as and, because, so, and so on in long and complex sentences. Zamel (1982), Raimes (1985a) and Carson et al. (1990) are of the view that ESL learner's previous language structure (syntactic, lexical) sometimes encourages the learners to transfer their L1 structural knowledge. Koch (1983) observed that Arabic discourse structure often motivates the Arab speakers and writers to repeat words and phrases in L2. Likewise Indian students also repeat words in their communication e.g., big-big tomato, very-very soon etc.

So, it can be concluded that native language and its linguistic knowledge and skill affect certain parts of second language writing ability. Researchers and teachers find the influence of L1 conventions, rules and L1 cognitive knowledge in the writing ability in a second language. The same applies to the writing systems of L1 and L2. Differences in L1 and L2 scripts result in spelling errors in L2 writing. For example, Urdu/Hindi language has totally different alphabetic writing systems from English, so learners spell words wrongly (Ibrahim, 1978). For example, they spell 'bot' for 'bought', 'no' for 'know'. On the other hand, similar writing systems facilitate learning of spellings such as, Spanish and English.

Kang (2005) examined the transfer of cohesion and discourse markers in the written discourse (narratives) of L2 of Korean English writers. To investigate the accurate use of cohesive devices, Korean English writers' discourse strategies were compared with those of native English speakers. Through the use of quantitative method, he analyzed and found that Korean learners of English made use of English linking devices as: and, because, so, therefore and so on successfully but further it was also found that they used

their L1 written discourse strategies, and preferred to avoid using target language styles and strategies.

Thus, empirical evidence and observations related to discourse transfer confirms the occurrence of L1 discourse patterns in L2 learning. It is a matter of special concern and study for researchers and teachers. The study of both cross-cultural and cross-linguistic discourse transfer can be of help in ESL pedagogy. By including L2 discourse patterns in this teaching, the teachers can help the students in communicating effectively.

### **Communication Style and Register**

Second language learners sometimes face problems in communicating with native speakers because they cannot distinguish between the conversational styles of L1 and L2. It mostly happens due to:

- (i) Imperfection in second language proficiency, and
- (ii) Interference of learner's L1 conversational rules, registers and styles.

ESL students with low level proficiency in communication skills (grammatical, lexical and phonological) cannot express themselves adequately at the time of communicating with native speakers. This results in ambiguities and difficulties. ESL students choose a particular conversational style for all situations. Their competence does not include stylistic variations. They are proficient in a single style like- classroom variety and when they have to communicate in conversational/context-embedded settings, they prove themselves uncomfortable, hesitant or more formal than necessary. Often in formal settings for example, in interviews, classroom settings, they select informal style and it results in irritation to the person with whom they are communicating (Segalowitz and Gatbonton, 1977).

Every language has some specific speech dialects and speech registers. In English, there is only a single second person pronoun 'you'; irrespective of the role relationship of the speaker and hearer. On the contrary, Urdu, German,

and French signal formality and number on the basis of pronoun distinction. For example, in Urdu there are three second person 'tu, tum and aap' classified according to age, status and position. French and German have tu/vous pronoun distinction with respect to power and position. The learners of these languages obviously, need skills to use appropriate forms in a given condition. In Japanese and Persian languages, first person and third person pronouns also have extended distinction in the use of formality. This difference between dialects and styles creates discomfort to non-native speakers [Brown and Gilman (1960), Richards and Sukwiwat (1983)], and should be made the target for learning and teaching.

### **Paralinguistic Elements in Conversational Style**

Along with linguistic elements, paralinguistic elements such as intonation, body posture, facial expression, gesture and so on also determine the level of proficiency such as: in every speech community, smile is associated with emotional expression (happiness, friendliness, agreements etc.) while other facial expressions, e.g., a nod; and eye contact e.g., gazing continuously, a glance are identified and interpreted according to different cultural values. In one culture, eye contact with interlocutors is taken as a pattern of offence and in another culture, it is symbolized as a matter of confidence. Pitch of volume and accent, usually, decide the mood, manner and meaning of discourse.

Almost all studies related to discourse transfer show that second language learners' communication carries its earlier style, conversation and attitude. But it is important to learn second language rules and styles, especially in communication with native speakers.

## Conclusion

Transfer is an important aspect of SLA, without which the study of second language learning and teaching remains incomplete. Transfer or L1 influence predicts the problems that second language learners face in the learning of L2. Through the predictive power of transfer, teaching may become more effective by recognizing the differences between the first and the second languages and between their cultures. Also, there are myriad causes for linguists and teachers to study in the area of transfer. The knowledge of the cultural and linguistic background of second language learners is an aid in teaching an L2.

Transfer occurs at all levels of language: phonological, lexical, semantic and syntactic. However, culture is also an important factor in causing transfer. Where similarities between two cultures create facility in learning, on the other side, differences create special problems and increase errors. For example, in Indian culture, it is the tradition to give respect to teachers and India's traditional education focuses on formality and discipline in class or with teachers. The same might not be the case with other cultures. Also, writing is the best medium of communication for students. So, students are more hesitant in oral interaction in routine situations of life, which forms the basic part of real life outside the classroom.

To sum up this chapter, it is concluded that transfer is a helpful factor in coping with the gigantic task of learning a second language/foreign language. A highly motivated student learning English can easily take help from the similarities between his/her L1 and L2; in the same way, it also helps the teacher in his/her teaching.

*Chapter II*  
*Discourse Competence*



## **CHAPTER II**

### **DISCOURSE COMPETENCE**

#### **Introduction**

Discourse competence is a component of communicative competence. Communicative competence is divided into four components: grammatical competence, discourse competence, socio-linguistic competence and strategic competence according to the classification of communicative competence as given by Canale and Swain (1980). They define discourse competence as an ability to make larger patterns of stretches of discourse into meaningful wholes. Later interpretation of discourse competence implies that discourse competence is also concerned with language use in social context, and in particular with interaction and dialogue between speakers (Gumperz, 1977). Contrary to it, Canale and Swain (1980) place it as a separate component of communicative competence.

The present chapter has three parts. The first part is concerned with the theoretical background and historical background communicative competence, tracing its origin from Noam Chomsky's linguistic competence (1965) and subsequent introduction of the term "Communicative competence" by Dell Hymes (1972). The second part describes some models of communicative competence that is, those given by Bialystok (1978), Cummins (1979, 1980, 1981), Krashen (1982), Canale and Swain (1980), Savignon (1985), Brown (1987) and Qing (1990) and Bachman (1990). The third part discusses discourse and discourse analysis.

## **Communicative Competence**

The role of ESL (English as a second Language) in bilingual education has always been the topic of discussion and intense research since the 1960s. Competence-based education has become a widely accepted approach to adult ESL learning. Interest in communicative language teaching has grown and spread since 1960s. Communication is the main aim of language teaching. At the same time, communication has been seen as the instrument, the method or the way of teaching. Communicative language teaching, whose major objective is to enable learners to produce language for the purpose of performing tasks which are important or essential to their everyday existence.

Dell Hymes, an American socio-linguist, coined the term communicative competence (1972), in contrast to Noam Chomsky's linguistic competence (1965). With the publication of 'Syntactic Structures' (1957), Noam Chomsky developed the concept of 'transformational generative grammar' which had departed from the psychological theory of behaviorism (Skinner's Verbal Behaviour' 1957) and structuralism (Bloomfield, 1933) and established the importance of cognition in human language learning. He asserted that every speaker of a language has an internalized generative grammar, and a native speaker-listener generates new sentences and distinguishes between correct and incorrect sentences.

According to Hymes (1972), communicative competence is the ability to communicate in everyday situations and includes both structural and functional aspects of language. It includes knowledge of grammar, vocabulary, rules of speaking and responding and use of language appropriately in different social contexts. For example: 'Open the door'- is an imperative sentence grammatically but functionally, it may be a request, an order, a disagreement or an agreement. Thus, the sentence may function differently in different social contexts though its structure is stable.

## **Theoretical and Historical Background**

Communicative competence has been discussed and defined by many applied linguists, socio-linguists, anthropologists and researchers. Here, the present researcher has tried to present views of different linguists and researchers about communicative competence.

### **Langue and Parole**

Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure (1916) has made a distinction between two aspects of language: Langue and Parole. Langue means language: all the rules and conventions regarding the combinations of sounds, formation of words and sentences, pronunciation and meaning. It is a product of social agreement. The rules regarding language use and its usages are in the mind of native speakers. Langue is a social, constructs a set of conventions shared by the speakers of a language. Langue is abstract, as these particular sets of rules exist in the mind of speakers who belong to that society that has created the language.

On the other hand, parole belongs to the individual. When those rules that exist in the mind of speakers as langue are used in a concrete form in actual speech or writing, they are manifested as parole. Parole is the actual sounds and sentences produced by an individual speaker or writer. It may be said that it is a concrete physical manifestation of the abstract langue. If a person hears another person speaking a language which he does not know, he hears only sounds, which is parole, but he cannot understand it because he does not share the conventions of that language which are behind the individual sounds. Thus, langue is the underlying system, which makes the parole meaningful. Without it parole would never be understood and could not serve as a means of communication. Thus, parole implies individual performance of

language in speech community and it makes use of concrete and physical organs in uttering words and utterance.

Saussure has considered langue as the law of language. Like law, it maintains the social order and homogeneity of the language; and it is relatively fixed, that is, it cannot change with each individual. Parole is the executive side of the language for its function. It executes langue through speaking and writing. However, it is important to note that Saussure emphasized the importance of parole rather than langue.

### **Chomsky's Linguistic Competence**

American linguist, Noam Chomsky (1965) has made a similar distinction between linguistic competence and performance. According to Chomsky, competence is the native speaker's knowledge of his/her language and the ability to produce and understand large stretches of sentences. Performance is the actual use of these utterances in routine life. In other words, the abstract or the internal grammar, which enables a speaker to utter and understand sentences and utterances in potential use, is a speaker's competence. According to him, competence is free from interference due to the slips of memory, the lapses of attention and so on. Chomsky states:

“Linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance.” (1965: 3)

Chomsky's linguistic competence and performance is the same as Ferdinand de Saussure's langue and parole dichotomy. But it differs in the sense that langue is the same with every individual while competence differs from person to person. Ferdinand de Saussure's understanding of langue

emphasizes language use in society while Chomsky's competence is based on psychology and presumes individual differences among human beings.

### **Criticisms of Chomsky's Linguistic Competence**

As for Chomsky, linguistic theory aims to study the production and understanding of the rules of language that a native speaker-listener acquires during the process of language acquisition. However, socio-psycho-linguistic research rejected Chomsky's limited view of competence and contrary to Chomsky's view, emphasizes the need to study language in its social context. In the 1970s, Hymes, Wales, Campbell, Jakobovits, Widdowson and others, all reject Chomsky's restricted view of competence. Jakobovits says,

"There is no guarantee that generative transformational grammar or for that matter any other linguistic theory will be able to account for all the facts about language which the native speaker possesses." (1970:17)

He argues that the social linguistic rules are as necessary a part of linguistic competence of a speaker as those of syntax. In Hymes' words, "There are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless" (1970: 14). Thus, the notion of competence should include socio-contextual appropriateness. The restriction of competence to performance in a homogeneous speech community apart from socio-cultural rules is inadequate to account for language in use. Campbell and Wales pointed out that Chomsky's notion of linguistic competence goes far away from the most important linguistic ability-

"...to produce or understand utterances which are not so much grammatical but, more important, appropriate to the context in which they are made," and they continue, "...by context we mean both the situational and verbal context of utterance." (1970:27)

Chomsky's notion of competence avoids almost everything of socio-cultural importance and significance. Thus, the attempt to establish a relationship between the language and its concrete context in which it is

appropriately used, has led to the concept of 'communicative competence' which can at best be taken as a socio-linguistic resolution of the competence-performance dichotomy.

### **Hymes' view of Communicative Competence**

As already stated earlier, Dell Hymes (1972) coined the concept of communicative competence as an extension of Chomsky's linguistic competence. Hymes argued that competence must include the rules of use as well as grammatical rules. To him, competence should also describe the knowledge and ability of individuals for appropriate use in the communicative events in which they find themselves in any concrete speech community. The salient points about Hymes' view of communicative competence are the following:

1. A child acquires language not only as a grammatical but also as an appropriate system, i.e. when and where to speak, what to speak and with whom to talk.
2. He emphasizes the rules of use because without these rules the grammatical rules will be useless.
3. Grammatically, the same sentence may function differently as a request, an order and a commitment as: 'Close the window', may be an order if a teacher says this to his student; may be a request if a student says it to his friend. So, this particular sentence performs differently according to varying social contexts. On the other hand, grammatically two different sentences may function in same way as: 'Please give me your pen' and 'May I take your pen?'. Both are requests, yet they are grammatically different.
4. Within the developmental sequences in which knowledge of the sentence of a language is acquired, a child also acquires knowledge of a set of rules in which utterances are used.

5. Competence includes the knowledge of structures and the ability to use them in a given social context.

Hymes postulates four features in communicative competence, which are as the following:

- Whether something is formally possible: it implies Chomsky's linguistic competence meaning when language agrees or disagrees with grammatical rules and structures.
- Whether something is formally feasible: it tells about the feasibility of a meaningful sentence. Sometimes a sentence cannot be grammatically acceptable but it may be accepted as feasible.
- Whether something is appropriate: it tells whether a sentence is appropriate to the context or not such as: 'Open the window'- may be a command, a request or just a statement or a warning but the appropriate meaning depends on the given context.
- Whether something is done: it implies the cultural and social rules of language use.

Thus, the notion of communicative competence refers to the grammatical, social, and cultural rules of use. Hence, communicative competence means the knowledge of grammar, structure, word-formation and pronunciation of the language, as well as knowledge of the rules of language use, to know how to start and how to end conversation, and how to respond to different social situations. In other words, communicative competence is the ability to use language in a speech community. Savignon notes,

"Communicative competence is relative, not absolute and depends on the co-operation of all the participants involved."  
(1983: 37)

It is essential for learners to know how to use grammatical rules for producing meaningful sentences in real life situations, it is also necessary for them to know what kind of language is used in a particular situation; when they should be silent and when they should perform. It is important that they understand the paralinguistic features of speaking, understand supra-sentential

features, and also know that a given or spoken sentence has more than one meaning according to the social context. So, language use involves social interaction and the main object of the theory of communicative competence is to emphasize the use of language as a means of interaction in the social contexts.

### **Language Use and Usage**

Widdowson (1978) makes a distinction between language use and usage. Usage is the perfection of linguistic system whereas use is the realization of the language system as meaningful spoken behaviour. Thus, a speaker's competence includes knowing how to recognize and how to use sentences to respond to rhetorical acts, e.g., requesting, apologizing, greeting, defining, classifying, promising, warning, etc. Widdowson further adds,

“...perhaps the only area of characterizing different language registers is to discover what rhetorical acts are commonly performed in them, how they combine to form composite communication units and what linguistic devices are used to indicate them.” (1971a: 85)

Some researchers claim that the distinction between usage and use is similar to Saussure's distinction between langue and parole, and Chomsky's distinction between competence and performance.

### **Some Models of Communicative Competence**

Conceptualizing the nature of language proficiency and its relationship to other constructs has been central to the resolution of a number of applied educational issues. Since Dell Hymes' proposal of the notion of 'communicative competence' (1970, 1971, 1972), an enormous amount of research on communicative competence has taken place.



## **Cummins' Model of CALP and BICS**

Like the difference between linguistic and communicative competence, Cummins (1979, 1980) has distinguished between cognitive/academic language proficiency (CALP) and basic inter-personal communicative skills (BICS). Cognitive/academic language proficiency focuses on language forms and rules which learners use in the classroom context and BICS deals with the learners' communication ability in formal situations. Cummins (1981) has later extended his model of CALP and BICS in the form of context-reduced (based on classroom orientation) and context-embedded (based on the communicative ability) of language use. Where the former resembles with CALP but the latter BICS, with added context dimensions in which language is used. A good share of classroom, school-oriented language use is context-reduced, while face to face conversation is context-embedded.

Cummins included the two aspects in his research: language use and the issue of age of learning too. He took two years old children for his research to examine their development in communicative language proficiency in a second language. He found that if at a young age, children are exposed to second language learning, they achieve native like proficiency. On the other hand, they require at least 5 to 7 years to develop their proficiency in classroom learning; and this concept was highly related to the development of literacy. In their first language, there is only a little difference in everyday communication skills between children of high and low ability. However, the ability to handle classroom language is much variable. Through IQ test, it was found that to achieve this skill is not easy and it was concluded that bilingual children need to develop the cognitive/academic aspect of language to achieve equality with non-natives in school system.

## Canale and Swain's Model

Several models of language proficiency or communicative competence have been proposed in recent years but the model presented by Canale and Swain (1980) appears to be the most popular one. They divided communicative competence into the four following components: grammatical competence, socio-linguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence. Grammatical competence is the dimension of communicative competence, which emphasizes grammatical rules of language- lexical rules, morphological rules, rules of syntax, rules of sentence-formation, semantic rules and phonological rules. Socio-linguistic competence refers to how the language learner/speaker uses language according to socio-cultural rules. Discourse competence refers to the logical connection of sentences in larger patterns for a meaningful discourse (spoken or written). Strategic competence refers to the strategies for breakdowns in communication according to the situation.

The two subcategories: grammatical and discourse competence reflect the use of the linguistic system itself. The other two subcategories pay attention to the functional system. Grammatical competence has become popular through Chomsky's notion of linguistic competence. Many linguists have accepted and gone with Canale and Swain's model of communicative competence (1980). According to Schachter,

“One current approach to characterizing grammatical competence is to say that it involves the ‘computational aspects of language’ the rules of formulations or constraints that allow us to pair sound with meaning, the rules that form syntactic constructions or phonological or semantic patterns of varied sorts.” (1990: 39-40)

So, grammatical competence helps us in the formulation of language structure. Discourse competence is a complement of grammatical competence. Stubbs says,

“Discourse competence attempts to study the organization of language above the sentence or above the clause and larger

linguistic units, such as conversational exchanges or written text.” (1983:1)

It can be considered the complement of grammatical competence.

However, discourse competence can also be viewed as the knowledge of text as well as dialogue. It enables us to use coherent and cohesive text, whether written or oral. Discoursal knowledge clearly involves both cultural conventions and appropriate grammatical choices. Hence, discourse competence is connected with grammatical competence and also overlaps with socio-linguistic competence.

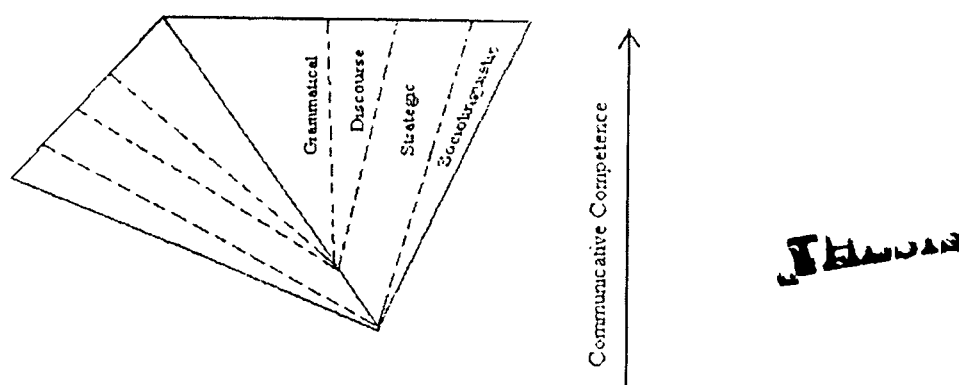
Canale and Swain’s model of communicative competence has brought about a shift of emphasis from the teaching of grammar and vocabulary to the acquisition of socio-linguistic and discourse competence and reflects a remarkable change in the methods and materials used in the present day language pedagogy. The model has found acceptance and popularity but it is not without controversy. Many linguists are not convinced with their proposed categorization of communicative competence. Schachter has argued that discourse competence and socio-linguistic competence are not two parts of communicative competence but they are the same. She argues,

“What is unclear to me is the conceptual justification for the separation of discoursal and socio-linguistic knowledge into distinctive components. Surely, unity of a text involves appropriateness and depends on contextual factors such as status of participants, purposes of the interaction, and norms or conventions of interaction.” (1990: 43)

To her, communicative competence is best seen as “consisting of two kinds of competence: grammatical and pragmatic. She maintains that sociological factors interact with all these two components at all levels.” (1990: 44).

## Savignon's Model

Like Canale and Swain (1980), Savignon (1983) agrees with the four components of communicative competence given by Canale and Swain. She also suggests that socio-linguistic and strategic competence permit the learner to check his/her communicative ability even before his/her learning of grammatical or structural competence. She claims that strategic competence is always present in the learner even before and at the time of learning. So, she suggests that there is no need to learn it separately as other components of communicative competence. She presents the following model of communicative competence:



**Fig. 3.**

**The components of communicative competence in S. Savignon's (1983) model.**

It is important to note that most researchers have given attention to the interactive nature of communicative competence. Adapting an interactional-based approach, Savignon maintains that communicative competence can develop learners' interactive power and their conversational ability; and guides

them where they have to terminate, to maintain, to negotiate meaning of interaction according to the situation. She claims that communicative competence is relative not absolute, and all components depend upon each other and each participant is also dependent on the cooperation of all other participants. The communicative situation helps in the understanding process.

According to Savignon, communicative competence implies

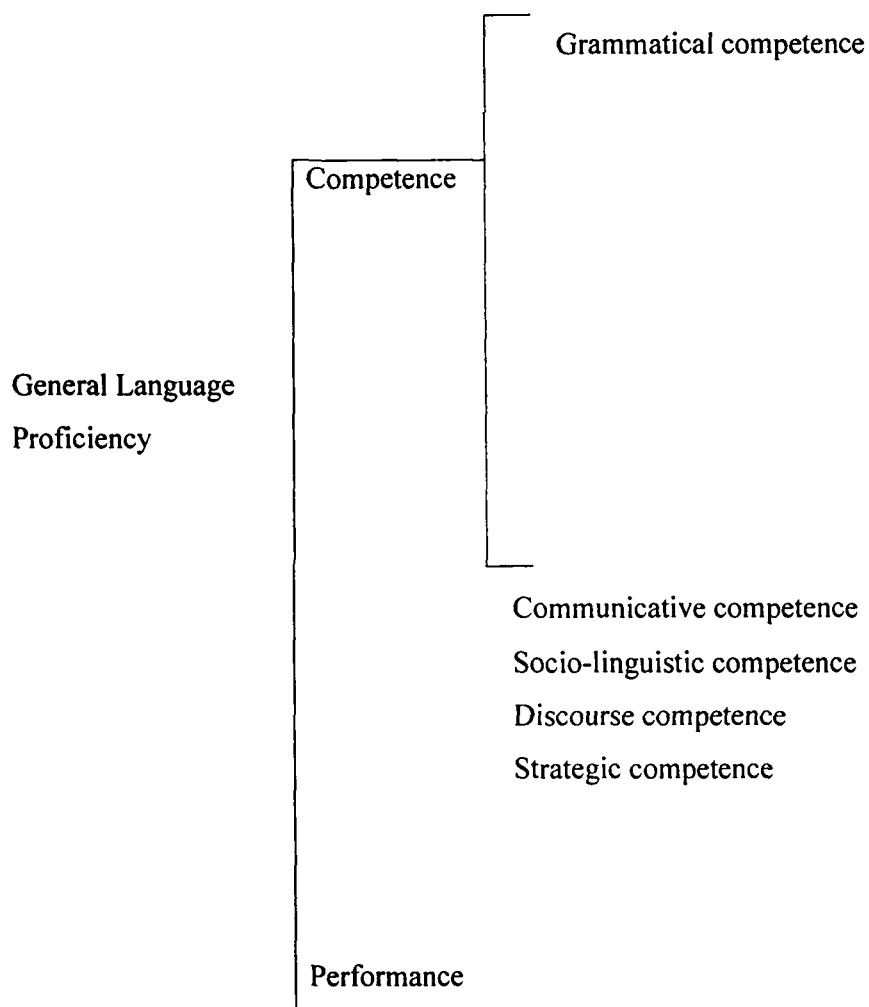
“...the ability to function in a truly communicative setting- that is a dynamic exchange in which linguistic competence must adapt itself to the total information input, both linguistic and paralinguistic of one or more interlocutors. Communicative competence includes grammatical competence (sentence level grammar), socio-linguistic competence (an understanding of the social context in which language is used), discourse competence (an understanding of how utterances are strung together to form a meaningful whole), and strategic competence (a language user’s employment of strategies to make the best use of what he/she knows about how a language works, in order to interpret, express and negotiate meaning in a given context).” (1985:130)

### **Douglas Brown’s View of Communicative Competence**

Douglas Brown (1987) agrees with the four components of communicative competence but in a slightly different way. Brown considers that grammatical competence and discourse competence reflect the use of the linguistic system itself. While grammatical competence focuses on sentence-level grammar, discourse competence is concerned with inter-sentential relationships. Discourse competence is thus the complement of grammatical competence.

## Chen Si-Qing's Model

Chen Si-Qing's model is quite different from Canale and Swain's. Chen Si-Qing has presented a model of competence divided into two subcategories:



**Fig. 2**

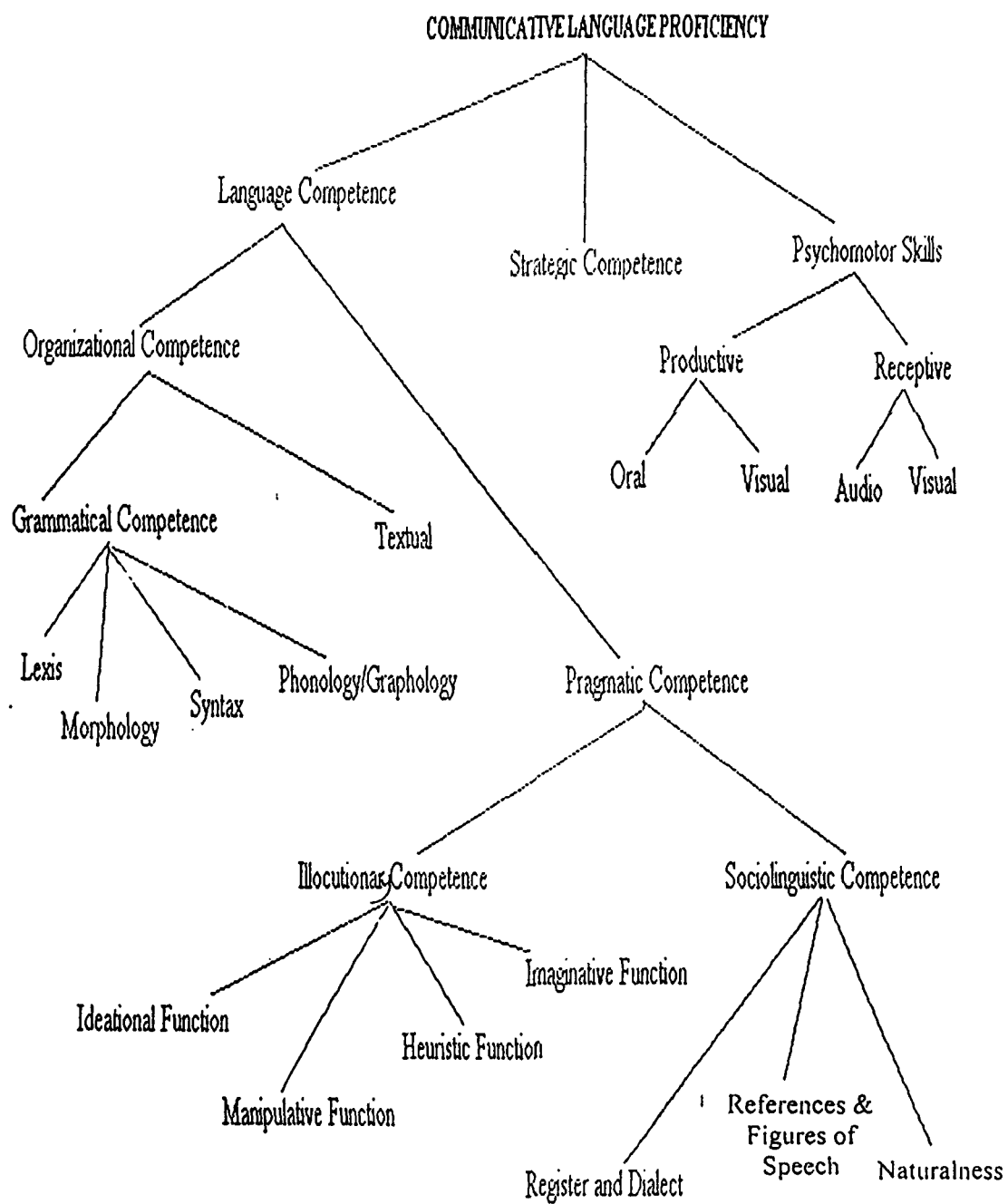
**Chen Si-Qing's model**

According to him, grammatical competence is not the subcategory of communicative competence, contrary to the view of Canale and Swain (1980)

and Savignon (1985). Performance is the realization of competence. Grammatical competence refers to language system and communicative competence refers to language use and they are viewed as two different components of competence.

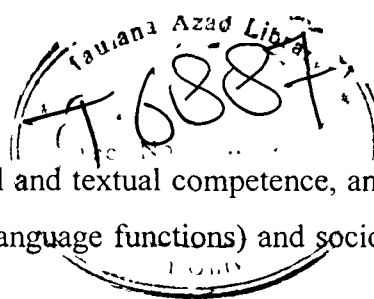
### **Bachman's Model**

Bachman has reorganized the definition of communicative competence. Bachman's model (1987 and 1990) has extended Canale and Swain's view of communicative competence. In 1990, he provided a model of communicative competence that is divided into three main subcategories: language competence and psychomotor skills. Language competence is elaborated in his model and further subdivided into organizational and pragmatic competence.



**Fig. 3**





Organizational competence includes grammatical and textual competence, and pragmatic competence subsumes illocutionary (language functions) and socio-linguistic competence.

Bachman's organizational competence corresponds to Canale and Swain's grammatical (lexis, morphology and syntax) and discourse (textual: coherence and cohesion) competence. Organizational competence is to know how to organize language at different levels, and pragmatic competence is to know how to use language appropriately according to the given situation. So, for communicating proficiently in L2, it becomes necessary to develop pragmatic competence and its two components: 1) illocutionary competence that in a simple term, is the ability to understand speech acts, and 2) Socio-linguistic competence that makes learners able to use different types of speech acts according to the social context. Speech acts are neutral between the spoken and written modes. It is important to note that in Bachman's categorization of model strategic competence is viewed separately from linguistic competence.

## **Discourse Competence and Discourse Analysis**

The focus on communicative competence has resulted in the study of discourse or pragmatic competence and has also encouraged discourse analysis. Discourse competence and discourse analysis have been the subject of extensive and intensive study since the 1960s and the early 1970s. The research has grown out from different disciplines such as linguistics, psychology, anthropology and sociology. Discourse competence remains an important issue of second language learning research. First of all, the interest in discourse is to be found in Zellig Harris' (1952) paper 'Discourse Analysis'. He considers discourse connected with text and social context. Discourse competence as mentioned before, is the use of communicative knowledge and experience, or it is a pattern of human behavior, attitude and socio-cultural rules and contexts through which they take part in communication. Discourse competence and

discourse analysis have embraced many extensive and intensive studies and approaches, i.e., the study of rhetorical coherence of interaction in which the focus of attention is the function of the language in the exchange of information. Discourse analysis studies language in action whether it is the written text or any kind of spoken communication. So, it seems to be important to describe briefly different meanings related to the word discourse.

Fairclough defines discourse, as a “particular view of language in use .... as an element of social life, which is closely interconnected, with other elements” (2004: 3). Further he states,

“I see discourses as ways of representing aspects of the world—the processes, relations and structures of the material world, the ‘mental world’ of thoughts, feelings, beliefs and so forth, and the social world.... Different discourses are different perspectives of the world, and they are associated with the different relations people have to the world, which in turn depends on their positions in the world, their social and personal identities, and the social relationships in which they stand to other people.... Discourses constitute part of the resources which people deploy in relating to one another- keeping separate from one another, co-operating, competing, dominating and in seeking to change the ways in which they relate to one another.” (2004: 124)

Foucault (1972, 1984) has made significant identification and analysis of discourses a preoccupation across the humanities and social sciences. His statement on ‘discourse’ makes it clear that for Foucault (1984), analysis of discourse is the analysis of the domain of ‘statements’,

“I believe I have in fact added to its meanings: treating it sometimes as the general domain of all statements, sometimes as an individualizing group of statements, and sometimes as a regulated practice that accounts for a number of statements.” (Foucault quoted in Fairclough, 2004: 123)

Cook states the following about discourse analysis,

“Discourse analysis examines how stretches of language, considered in their full textual, social, and psychological context, become meaningful and unified for their users.” (Cook, 2000: ix)

According to him, discourse analysis provides “insights into the problems and processes of language use and language learning” (Cook, 2000: ix). Cutting

defines discourse analysis as “...approaches to studying language’s relation to the contextual background features” (Cutting, 2003: 1).

Some researchers make a distinction between spoken discourse competence and textual competence. Spoken discourse competence also refers to the understanding of the context of situation and responding or speaking in different social context in cohesive and coherent way. Textual discourse competence refers to the ability to understand and construct monologues or written texts of different genres, such as narratives, procedural texts, expository texts, descriptive texts and others. These discourse types have different characteristics, but in each genre there are some elements that help in making the text coherent, e.g., linking devices. Learning a language involves learning how to relate in such a way that the reader or listener can understand the linguistic elements what is going on, and see what is important. Thus, discourse competence relates information in a way that is cohesive and coherent to the readers and hearers.

## **Two Meanings of Discourse Competence**

After Zellig Harris’ (1952) paper ‘Discourse Analysis’, many applied linguists and sociologists have interpreted discourse competence into two different ways:

### **First Meaning of Discourse**

The first meaning of discourse has been considered the proper organization of text. According to this view, discourse refers to the ability of providing for logical and cohesive connection of sentences and utterances into meaningful and coherent stretches of discourse. The term ‘organization’ for discourse competence was first introduced by Bachman (1990). But, this concept is best

exemplified by Canale and Swain (1980), Savignon (1983 and 1985), Brown (1987) and Qing (1990) as it has been pointed out before. All of them have described discourse competence as an organizational aspect of language above the sentence. It is the ability of combining sentences into larger stretches of communication.

## **Second Meaning of Discourse Competence**

The second meaning of discourse refers to the socio-linguistic use of language. According to this concept, discourse cannot be produced and understood without the knowledge of socio-cultural contexts, values, attitudes and behaviours. This view of discourse is best exemplified by Gumperz (1977) and Schachter (1990). Narang states the following about discourse competence:

“A speaker-listener internalizes communicative grammar while he undergoes the normal process of socialization. This process implies that the learner’s language acquisition ability is but a part of his total learning/acquisition abilities and his interaction with the environment implies not just the linguistic environment. In fact a child learning his language and learning to interact with his environment never receives linguistic data isolated from socio-cultural context.” (1996: 247)

Therefore, according to this view a child acquires discourse competence through the learning of his/her social rules and conventions in addition to learning the grammatical rules. Hymes says,

“The linguist’s problem is to explain how a child comes rapidly to be able to produce and understand (in principle) any and all of the grammatical sentences of a language. If we consider a child actually capable of producing all possible sentences he would probably be institutionalized, particularly not only the sentences, but also speech or silence were random or unpredictable. We then have to account for the fact that a normal child acquires knowledge of sentences not only as grammatical but also as appropriate.” (1971: 5)

Discourse competence has become a popular and burning issue in ESL studies and research after Canale and Swain’s categorization of communicative

competence into four components: grammatical competence, discourse competence, socio-linguistic competence and strategic competence (1980). The question is asked is whether it should be learned through grammatical structure of language or through a given social context. Some linguists and researchers are of the view that discourse competence is the overlap of grammatical and socio-linguistic competence enveloping both the meanings of discourse. Schachter (1990) says that discourse competence and socio-linguistic competence are not two parts of communicative competence but they are the same. Discourse competence is a knowledge of text (micro-socio-linguistic knowledge) and can be viewed as cohesion and coherence, and it also refers to pragmatic knowledge. To her, discourse knowledge includes both cultural conventions and appropriate grammatical choices. Gumperz (1977) is concerned with conversation in socio-linguistic background in the interpretation of discourse. He believes that in the interpretation of discourse, only grammatical competence is not necessary but speaker's attitude, behaviour and socio-cultural values are also important. In his theoretical study, Gumperz (1977) reported that social knowledge stored in the mind of speaker comes out and mingles with grammatical competence at the time of speaking. So, he has highlighted the role of socio-cultural assumptions in producing and perceiving the meaning of discourse because without certain background perceptions, the listener or reader may lose track in communication.

Finally, it may be concluded that discourse competence is the logical connection of sentences into meaningful wholes in a given social context. But discourse can not be understood without studying both aspects of discourse: spoken discourse and discourse in terms of cohesion.

## **Spoken Discourse**

Discourse may, first of all, refer primarily to spoken interaction which is analyzed in terms of units of meaning, organized into a hierarchy employing some or all of the terms like act, move, exchange, transaction and others.

Spoken discourse refers to the interaction orally between and among persons in a social environment. Especially, spoken discourse relies upon conversation in a social-context. Spoken discourse competence refers to the ability to make and interpret the meaning of different functions of speech acts in different context: classroom setting, interviews and interaction with native and non-native speakers in routine situations.

## **The Birmingham Model**

The Birmingham model of discourse analysis proposed by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) at the University of Birmingham is very influential with respect to the study of conversational discourse with special reference to the classroom. It is a simple and useful model analyzing different patterns of interaction and it handles those patterns also that reflect the basic functions of conversation. Firstly, Sinclair and Coulthard examine the traditional or conventional patterns between teachers and students in the classroom and secondly, they examine the patterns of interaction outside the classroom. Therefore, this model can be related to Cummins' context-embedded and context-reduced situations. The following is an edited excerpt from his classroom data:

(T=teacher, P= pupil)

T: Now then...what's that, what is it?

P: Saw.

T: It's a saw, yes this is a saw. What do we do with a saw?

P: Cut wood.

T: Yes. (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975: 93-94)

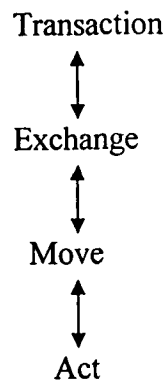
The above is a discourse process and discourse exchange between teacher and student in the classroom. Classroom is a place where anyone can start to interact in an easy pattern (initiation by teacher, answer of student and follow-up comment by teacher) but outside of the classroom, he/she faces the real world for interaction with different types of people. To communicate in real life seems to be free from the rules of structuredness. For example:

A: What time is it?

B: Six thirty.

A: Thanks. (p: 26)

Sinclair and Coulthard have provided a number of turns for analyzing discourse. An 'exchange' consists of a number of 'moves'. For example, the above exchange has the pattern: question, answer and confirmation. The teacher asks a question, the pupil answers it and again the teacher confirms the answer. The three types of moves are given the labels: initiation, response and follow up by McCarthy (1991). Sinclair and Coulthard's model of discourse analysis reflects the basic function of intention and also offers a hierarchical model where smaller units combine together to form larger units. In its simplest form, the hierarchy is as follows:



While 'transaction' is a combination of a number of exchanges, 'act' at the lowest level, refers to speech acts, implying the functions performed through language.

## Speech Acts

That which Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) label as 'acts', Austin (1962) and Searle (1969) name as 'speech acts'. In simple words, speech acts refer to the functions of language, or the action that an utterance performs. Every sentence of speech or writing carries the force of requesting, apologizing, instructing, ordering, etc. then language is seen as doing a particular act, e.g.,

“Don't lie.”

This particular set of language (either spoken or written) performs a particular act of order or advice or instruction etc. When we speak or write, we do not say or write just a bunch of linguistic structures. We have a function to perform with grammar and vocabulary. It is written, “Fixed rate” on a shop, it functions as a guide for customers that there is no possibility of bargaining.

The work from the Council of Europe, in particular that by Van Ek and Alexander (1975) and Wilkins (1976) is based on the recognition that in the actual use of language, people do not just produce sentences but express ideas, and fulfill communicative functions, in doing so. On this basis, it is proposed that the content of a language teaching course should be defined in terms of not only the formal elements of syntax and lexis, as is customary in the grammatical approach, but of the concepts and functions these elements are used to realize.

Some basic precepts of functional criteria for curriculum design appear to be like this- first predict the situations that the learner is likely to use the language in, and then identify the language functions related to them, that the learner will have to perform. There are clear practical difficulties involved, viz., listing and description of communicative functions, prediction of situations; the learner may have to face, the absence of a universal principles in doing so etc. O'Neil has said on this,

“...the idea that everything I write or teach must seem to be of direct value to the learners in situations we can predict he or she will encounter, is based on delusion, secondly, it can not be



carried out, thirdly, if you try to do so, you will debase the concept of communication itself.” (1977: 89)

The functional approach of discourse does not deal with only language use in context but also with concepts and functions in context; and with concepts and functions in idealized isolation. Language makes us able to continually express novel propositions. In other words, the needs that we put on language are virtually limitless. Our faculty of language is a faculty of linguistic creativity. The way in which language is organized to meet these demands is the application of the grammatical system in the actual process of communication depending on the features of the personality, the setting of the interaction and the purpose of the user. So, language materials are concerned with speech acts, with what is done, not only with grammatical and lexical forms of what is said. But these do not occur in isolation, they combine to form discourse.

### **Discourse Analysis in Terms of Cohesion**

Discourse may also refer to a stretch of written language. This meaning of discourse is exemplified in Halliday’s (1989) ‘Spoken and Written Language’ and Halliday’s (1976) ‘Cohesion in English’.

The grammar of English offers a set of linkers to connect sentences. The unity produced in a text through this set of linking devices (grammatical linkers, lexical linkers, semantic linkers and conjunctions) is known as cohesion. The meaning of a text is more than the meanings of its individual sentences. With the set of linkers (connectives), the writer creates coherence in the text. Coherence gives a sense to readers. Neubauer considers text as interactive and inter-personal, “a way of behaving and making others behave” (1983: 7). The sentences such as:

“John is intelligent. He likes apple juice”- are cohesive but are not coherent. If one assures a link between being intelligent and juice, it leaves an

effect of cause-effect relationship between two sentences. So, cohesion is very important to interpret the text. Making sense of a text is called interpretation. The reader has to make the world of text (interpretation) on the basis of his/her experience and see what events are characteristically manifested in it (De Beaugrande and Dressler, 1981). For this links and markers, i.e., signals have semantic and discourse functions (i.e., -ed is the marker of past tense) present the surface of text. They help in three ways:

- a) they answer the question, why something happened;
- b) they reduce the ambiguity;
- c) the reader recognizes the area of acting.

Halliday (1989), hence, considers both the meanings as constituting discourse.

American linguists i.e., Gumperz and Hymes, (1972) see types of speech event according to cultural and social context. Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson (1974) and Goffman (1976a) examine spoken interaction. The paper by Allen and Widdowson (1978) 'Teaching the communicative use of English' introduces certain distinctions between use and usage, the grammatical cohesion of text and the rhetorical coherence of discourse. Widdowson (1971b) makes a useful distinction between text and discourse. He conceives of text as a stretch of language exemplifying the structure of the language, especially the devices indicating such structuring above the level of sentence, and discourse as a stretch of language being a unique piece of communication. While Fairclough defines texts as "any actual instance of language in use" (2004: 3) and Cutting further, specifies texts as "pieces of spoken or written discourse" (2003: 2).

Kramsch (1998) makes a difference between texts and discourse. She views texts as products of language use and discourses as the processes of language use. According to her, text is the "product of language use, whether it be a conversational exchange, or a stretch of written prose, held together by cohesive devices" (p: 132), and discourse is the "process of language use,

whether it be spoken, written or printed that includes writers, texts, and readers within a socio-cultural context of meaning production and reception” (p: 127).

Thus, discourse analysis is the examination of language used by members of a speech community. Today we seek to provide the learner not only with linguistic knowledge, which enables him/her to produce and understand grammatical sentences, but also social knowledge and skill, which permit him to produce and comprehend socially appropriate utterances. We deem it as part of the speaker’s competence to form ‘continuous discourse’.

### **Research on Second Language Written Discourse Competence**

Second language learners of English feel difficulty in acquiring native like proficiency in written discourse. To assess their problems in ESL writing and those factors that may be helpful in achieving native like writing competence, a number of studies have been conducted. Though second language writing research is short of investigations, as Krashen remarks that ‘studies of second language writing are sadly lacking’ (1984: 41). Here, an attempt has been made to present some studies that have been conducted to find out second language writing processes and behaviours of second language learners to achieve competence in written discourse.

Among earliest studies on written discourse competence, Chelala (1981), Jones (1982) and Jacobs (1982) conducted their empirical research on second language writing behaviours of writers who took help from first language writing; Chelala (1981) worked on a case study of two professional and Spanish speaking women through composing aloud audiotapes four times and interviewing two times. She analyzed coherent patterns and incoherent patterns of subjects’ behaviours in their written products and their audiotapes of writing aloud by applying Perl’s coding scheme. She observed that her subjects took help from the first language in their incoherent behaviours and switched back and forth between the mother tongue and target language. She

observed in her findings that 1) there is no significant difference between native and non-native writers; 2) linguistic competence does not affect the composing ability of second language writing.

Jacobs, Zamel (1982), also found that for proficiency in writing, writing discourse process is more important than linguistic competence. She claimed that writing discourse process gives the ability to develop written products. For her empirical work, she took eight able women writers of university level, and she found through interviews about writing production process that her subjects took help from first language writing process in second language writing discourse process. So, she suggested that first language process based writing guidelines can also help for second language written discourse learning and teaching. Furthermore, first language writing process oriented instructions based research were carried out by Jones (1985), Diaz (1985, 1986), Rorschach (1986) and Urzua (1987). They all corroborated Zamel' (1982) view. They prepared first language writing process-oriented setting in a second language classroom and they found that first language writing process oriented pedagogy in second language classroom improved and developed second language writing ability and competence. Diaz and Urzua said that it did more beyond improving writing discourse competence. Pfingstag (1984) studied the helping factors of the composing aloud protocol. For her study, she took an undergraduate Spanish-speaking student with the proficiency of English till intermediate level. She used the Michigan Placement Test for analysis and saw that her subject was unproficient in composing competence, planned a little about the topic and had no knowledge of strategies to create ideas. So, to improve the composing strategies, she arranged composing aloud session for 20 minutes and found that this session improved the composing competence of her subject. Hence, she suggested writing aloud protocol as a helping pedagogical as well as research instrument.

Jones' (1985) study gave support to the use of writing process based teaching in second language classroom setting. Jones administered three

different writing tasks (e.g.; personal, descriptive and generalized) to each nine-second-language student in unlimited time. Jones took interviews of the subjects about the writing processes of each topic and their experiences and opinions for the differences between first language and second language writing processes. To analyze the writing behaviour of two participants, he applied Krashen's monitor theory and he observed that monitoring did not improve writing behaviour or strategies but he discovered that monitoring enhanced the second language writing process. Hence, he concluded that the use of monitor might be fruitful through instructional methods.

Rorschach (1986) also supported composing process-oriented pedagogy in second language classroom. Her views were similar to Jones' (1985) with respect to the use of monitoring with instructions. For her study, she collected her data from three ESL subjects. The teacher gave one essay to each participant for writing and after the checking of the essay; the essay was given once more to revise. Interviews were taken to find the reason why they composed and revised essays. She concluded that the reader's response gave an instinct to writers to concentrate on the structural form rather than the topic.

Diaz (1985, 1986) focused on the benefits of instruction-based learning and teaching. Diaz examined the second language students' writing behaviour in writing process-designed classroom. She found that instruction sourced illuminating pedagogy enhanced the writing discourse completely including writing strategies, techniques and behaviours.

Like Diaz, Urzua (1987) examined helping factors of process-based instruction in second language classroom. She studied the writing growth of four young students- two of fourth class and two of six class. Her data had "transcripts of peer response sessions, weekly compositions and twice-weekly dialogue journals" (p: 279). Through illuminating teaching, she observed that students gained three important writing skills: "...a) a sense of audience, b) a sense of voice, and c) a sense of power in language" (p: 279).

Contrary to the views of Zamel (1982), Jones (1985), Diaz (1985, 1986) and Urzua (1987) about the beneficial relation of first and second language writing processes; Raimes (1985a, 1987), Carson, Carrell, Silbestein, Kroll and Kuchn (1990) and Pennington and So (1993) do not link first and second language writing ability. They suggest that first and second language writing processes are different in their own nature.

Raimes (1985a) reports that second language writers could not be defined because they differ in their cultural background and their learning needs. Therefore, their first language writing process could not be an aid in second language writing.

Lay's (1982) study on the other hand, claims that the use of both languages was necessary in acquiring the writing proficiency in second language. Her study took four Chinese subjects and tried to find out how much first language was used through composing aloud audiotapes and interviewing them about their writing background, first language experience and attitude towards second language. She observed that her subjects made use of switching to their first language while writing about a familiar topic of their first language. She found that they used their first language and its diction when they forgot or could not find a word of English. Lay gave three conditions in which her subjects were tended to switch to their first language- firstly, learners used first language at the initial developmental stage as a useful aid in learning and as they learnt more English, the use of first language decreases; second, she claimed that her participants used first language for those topics which they had experienced or acquired in their first language; and third, she argued that retrieval of first language information helps in better search on their unknown topics. Thus, Lay concluded that second language writers' quality of creation of ideas, content and structure improved with the use of their first language because they could plan easily even in second language with first language information.

Zamel (1983) extended her earlier finding by conducting an empirical study on university level students. Here, she conducted her study on 'skilled' and 'unskilled' writers and she concluded that first language and second language writing processes of 'skilled' writers were the same and 'unskilled' writers expended more time in editing and deleting rather than revision. She declared that proficient writers "clearly understand what writing entails" while unproficient writers do not do so (p: 180).

Raimes (1985b) tested the writing proficiency of second language writers through the Michigan Proficiency Test. She reported writers' behaviour, experience, background and attitude towards second language writing. Her research also selected 'skilled' and 'unskilled' second language writers. She also observed that her unskilled subjects paid little attention to planning, editing and revision; and she observed that linguistic competence in second language did not help in writing, while first language writing process might be beneficial in second language writing process.

Martin-Betancourt (1986) also supported the view that second language composition processes are similar to first language writing process. For this finding, she analyzed the protocols of Spanish speaking learners and found that some used first language a little and others used first language frequently by translating. Gaskill (1986), Hall (1987) and Arndt (1987) also emphasized the helping factors and role of first language writing process in second language writing process. They claimed that 'proficient' writers used first language writing experience, behaviour and knowledge in second language writing. Arndt reported that "the composing strategies of each individual writer were found to remain consistent across languages" (1987: 257).

A number of other studies also support the opinion that first language and second language writing processes are the same. Cumming (1987) discovered that unskilled French speaking second language writers used their first language to create text whereas skilled writers used first language not only to create text but also to choose apt vocabulary through translation or transfer.

Cumming collected his data from composing aloud tapes, relating to subjects' experience of personal and academic areas after giving them three types of writing tasks- personal, expository and academic.

The same evidence came from the study of Jones and Tetroe (1987), who examined six graduate Spanish speaking ESL writers' protocols to observe their first and second language writing behaviours and experiences. They found inconsistency in the use of first language writing in second language writing behaviour. Some transferred more and others a little. It works as an aid to ESL writers especially at the beginning level. Friedlander (1990) also reported the use of first language in creating ideas for content and that it resulted into better writing. These studies put forth the view that the use of first language writing process and competence becomes an effective and positive factor in second language writing and competence in second language written discourse.

Studies on written discourse competence exist in abundance. It has been the general concern of many researchers that ESL learner's written discourse processing includes writing strategies, first language writing processes and second language linguistic competence. A more recent study by Whalen and Menard (1995) than earlier studies analyzed how much use was made of 1) metacognitive knowledge (Bracewell, 1983); awareness of cognitive knowledge and power for generating, manipulating and maintaining writing abilities that already exist in the mind of second language learner; 2) strategic knowledge [Cumming (1988), Koninck and Boucher (1993), Bisailon (1992) and Whalen (1993)]– referred to the ability to acquire purpose of any given writing task, and 3) linguistic knowledge [Chomsky (1965) and Yau (1991)]– concerned with the structural knowledge of language, grammatical rules and know-how to apply them according to syntax and context. To see the importance of these factors, they gave an argumentative text in both first language (English) and second language (French) to 12 undergraduate students and they found that writers' strategies, metacognitive knowledge and linguistic knowledge clearly have a role in discourse competence. Another study by Yau



(1991) has confirmed that writer's second language linguistic competence influences second language writing. If the writer has more/higher linguistic knowledge, he/she shows more competence in written discourse.

Recent studies made by Hirose and Sasaki (1994), Sasaki and Hirose (1996), Sasaki (2002) and Sasaki (2004) built second language writing models (comprehensive written text, videotaped writing behaviours and recall protocols) for Japanese students of EFL. The results showed that EFL learner's first language writing ability, second language linguistic competence, second language proficiency and second language metacognitive knowledge work as important helping factors to gain native like writing competence. While on the other hand, previous studies of Zamel (1982) and Raimes (1985a) had not seen any relation between L1 writing ability and second language proficiency. Reid (1984) claims that ESL writers should have knowledge of second language task "what is socially and culturally appropriate in terms of the writer's roles, audience expectations, rhetorical and stylistic conventions and situational or contextual features of written text" (1990: 201).

### **Discourse Strategies in Written Discourse**

Several studies have laid emphasis on the role and importance of writing discourse strategies in gaining writing competence. These strategies are writer's cognitive factors that guide learners to use their second language linguistic, grammatical and contextual knowledge in the process of writing. The first written discourse strategy is planning that aids in choosing method and material (linguistic structure, concept and content) for the given writing task. After planning, writers revise their prior knowledge related to the present written discourse perspective then they organize sentences at discourse level. Organizational strategy shows how to plan explicitly [Roca de Larios et.al. (1999) and Zamel (1983)]. Other writing strategies such as: evaluation, transcription and translation help in maintaining second language discourse production; and are based on writer's cognitive capacity and his/her contextual

and cultural knowledge of the task. When the writer faces any problem in second language writing task, he/she takes the help of translation. His/her knowledge (linguistic and conceptual), behaviour and ability correspond to his second language writing discourse production (Wang and Wen, 2002).

Many studies examine written discourse strategies used by 'good' and 'bad' writers. Raimes (1985a), Roca de Larios, Marin and Murphy (2001) found that able writers are involved more in planning and revising in discourse production process, while less skilled second language writers are concerned with less planning, revision and more editing. Evidence for this phenomenon was found by Planko (1979), Sommers (1980), Zamel (1983) and Roca de Larios et al. (1999 and 2001).

Thus, writing discourse strategies play an important role in achieving written discourse competence. At present, teachers and researchers are giving more attention to the study of discourse in their classrooms and in their research. The question arises whether there is a need to give more time to the teaching of discourse to ESL learners.

## **Conclusion**

It is clear that communicative competence is the mother of discourse competence as the various models presented by many linguists and researchers show. Canale and Swain (1980) have described communicative competence as a combination of four categories: grammatical, discourse, socio-linguistic and strategic. However, it has received criticism from Schachter (1990) who does not accept this division of components. Savignon (1983) suggests a possible relationship among four components. Bachman (1990) has developed a model of language competence dividing it into two components: organizational and pragmatic competence.

Discourse competence as discussed, is a subcategory of communicative competence. But it has also its own separate value in SLA because it is

concerned with the use of language in society and it is divided into two parts: organization of language, which includes the grammatical/linguistic knowledge, and function of language that includes socio-linguistic and strategic skills and knowledge. These two meanings of discourse are treated separately in the present work for collecting data on transfer of discourse competence and they are represented separately in the empirical studies reported in chapter III and chapter IV.

*Chapter III*  
*Transfer of Discourse*  
*Competence:*  
*A Study on Conjunctions*

## **CHAPTER III**

### **TRANSFER OF DISCOURSE COMPETENCE: A STUDY ON CONJUNCTIONS**

#### **Introduction**

Successful communication requires many factors, one of which is cohesion, implying the linking of two or more than two sentence parts and meanings to each other within the text. To create cohesion in text, linking devices are significant signalling the function and relationship of sentences and their meanings. Learners of a second language are required to use correct and proper linking devices for effective communication. This study surveys the transfer of conjunctions as they constitute one important category of linking devices. The use of conjunctions was examined in the descriptive, narrative and expository writings of 15 Indian undergraduate students of Aligarh Muslim university, Aligarh, where English is the medium of teaching and learning of subjects. English is also taught as a separate subject since primary education till graduation.

This chapter contains two parts: 1) the first describes cohesion and linking devices with its two main types: grammatical linking devices and lexical linking devices. The second part views background research and examines the effect of L1 transfer of linking devices especially conjunctions to L2 writing through conducting a study on fifteen undergraduate students of A.M.U., Aligarh (India).

#### **Meaning of Cohesion**

Discourse or text is a stretch of language larger than the sentence. But, discourse/text is not just a bunch of sentences and not only a simple

grammatical unit of language, it is also a semantic unit, so that a single sentence or larger stretches (text) are understood or interpreted in the relation of context. The concept of cohesion and linking devices became the focus of research with the publication of Halliday and Hasan's 'Cohesion in English' (1976). They postulated that "Cohesion itself is part of the text forming component in the linguistic system" (1976: 27). According to Barker,

"Cohesion is the network of lexical, grammatical, and other relations which provide links between various parts of a text. These relations or ties organize, and to some extent create a text; for instance, by requiring the reader to interpret words and expressions by reference to other words and expressions in the surrounding sentences and paragraphs. Cohesion is a surface relation; it connects together the actual words or expressions that we can see or hear." (1992: 180)

Cohesion makes the continuity that lies between one part of the text and another, and it displays relevant features and links of discourse in a coherent way so that reader/listener can understand the meaning of a discourse (Carrell, 1982). Thus, it can be said that cohesion creates text.

## **Linking Devices**

Those devices or factors that make texts cohesive are also called linking devices (Nuttall, 1982). As mentioned before, a spoken or written discourse shows semantic unity between clauses and sentences or among sentences. This unity or continuity comes into the mind of reader/listner due to linking devices. Linking devices connect sentences to each other. The researcher has taken the taxonomy and categorization of Halliday and Hasan (1976) for conjunctions. The researcher has described two main categories of linking devices:

1. Grammatical linking devices
2. Lexical linking devices

## Grammatical Linking Devices

Grammatical linking devices have a closed system, e.g., systems of person, number and degrees of comparison. They include pronouns, demonstratives, articles, comparatives and conjunctions. Grammatical cohesion can be divided into three subcategories:

1. Reference
2. Ellipsis and Substitution
3. Conjunction

### Reference

Reference includes pronouns (he, she, it, they, you, etc), article (the) and demonstratives (this, that, these, those etc). Reference is a link between a part of text and something else which is unfolded in the given context by reference.

References are of three types:

- a. **Anaphoric**: Looking backward in the text to discover reference. For example:

It rained day and night for two weeks. The basement flooded and everything was under water. It spoilt all our calculations.

Here, the meaning of it seems to be ‘the context of raining and flood’ or ‘time of two weeks’. (Halliday, 1976: 52)

- b. **Exophoric**: Looking outward in the immediate context of the text to collect information. For example:

Put it on the table.

Here, the listener looks at the item ‘it’ which the speaker has in his/her hand.

c. **Cataphoric:** Looking forward in the text to relate one element of a text with the other element. For example:

He is a brilliant student and he qualified in the competitive exam.

Now, Arvind is an I.A.S. officer.

Here, the listener can not understand who 'he' is and which 'exam' he has qualified in, until he/she comes to the next sentence.

### Ellipsis and Substitution

Ellipsis is the omission of those words or grammatical elements which are already mentioned in the context. It works either at nominal, verbal and clausal levels. For example:

I will cut the potatoes, and you the onions.

Here, in the second clause the words 'will cut' have been removed because they are already mentioned in the first clause and need not be repeated.

Substitution is similar to ellipsis since it is also used to avoid unnecessary repetition and works at the nominal, verbal and clausal levels. Some of the lexical items generally used for substitution are the following:

One: I wanted to gift her a blue pullover, but she has one already.

Do: Did Nilu actually say this to you?

Do: Yes, she did.

Same: She asked for coffee, I did the same.

### Conjunction

A conjunction links two words, phrases and clauses and also sentences. It is different from reference, ellipsis and substitution because it does not demand a search backward, outward and forward in the text or out of the text but it gives textual links. In other words, it is an orderly signal of relationship between and



within sentences. There is a comprehensive list of conjunctions in Halliday and Hasan's 'Cohesion in English' (1976). They have kept it a separate linking device from grammatical linking devices. The researcher has merged conjunctions with grammatical linking devices because conjunctions give grammatical cohesion. Halliday and Hasan have categorized conjunctions and their functions into four broad types:

- a. **Additive:** Simple (e.g., and, or, nor), complex, emphatic (e.g., furthermore), complex, de-emphatic (e.g., incidentally), apposition (e.g., in other words, thus) and comparison (e.g., in the same way, by contrast).
- b. **Adversative:** Adversative 'proper' (e.g., but, though, however, even so), contrastive, avowal (e.g., in fact, actually), contrastive (e.g., but, however, and, on the other hand), corrections (e.g., instead, on the contrary, rather) and dismissal (e.g., anyhow, either case, in any case).
- c. **Causal:** General (e.g., so, then, therefore, consequently), specific (e.g., on account of this, in consequence), reversed causal (e.g., for, because), causal, specific (e.g., it follows, to this end), conditional (e.g., then, otherwise, under the circumstances) and respective (e.g., in this respect, here, otherwise, in other respect).
- d. **Temporal:** Simple (e.g., then, next, before that), conclusive (e.g., in the end), correlatives (e.g., at first, first...then, now, finally) and complex (e.g., at once, soon).

Conjunctions are also called linking devices, discourse markers, connectors, linkers or ties. In the present study, the researcher has used the term 'conjunctions' or 'linking devices' instead of other possible terms. It should be made clear at the very outset that the researcher has chosen to study the transfer of only conjunctions, which constitute only a part of grammatical cohesion.

## Lexical Linking Devices

The other major category in Halliday and Hasan's classification is that of lexical linking devices. Lexical linking devices are phoric (referential relation) and these are established through the structure of the lexis or vocabulary. Lexical linking devices have two categories as the following:

1. **Reiteration:** Repetition of words, synonymy, hyponymy, words summing up the previously stated items, actions and views. For example:

He has a beautiful vase, which he keeps in his drawing room.

This pot is made of glass.

2. **Collocation:** Words having coherence and cohesion from the lexicality and repetition. Collocation refers to the tendency of certain words to occur with certain other words. For example:

Take care! The vase is fragile and can break easily.

Here the words 'vase', 'fragile' and 'break' collocate with each other.

## Background Research

Studies involving cohesion lack in number in spite of its importance. With the publication of Halliday and Hasan's 'Cohesion in English' (1976), linguists, researchers and language teachers have become, however, sensitive to the use of linking devices in spoken and written discourse.

Most of the studies regarding cross-cultural speech and comprehension have reported the difficulties in the use of conjunction or linking devices. Studies regarding confusion and difficulties have been reported by Young (1982), Tyler et al. (1988), Field and Yip (1992), Scollon (1993), Zhang (2000) and Sun (2005 and 2006). All of them have emphasized the teaching of linking devices in ESL pedagogy by developing a deep and keen awareness of factors and rules of the linking devices. They are of the view that ESL learners

should learn the difference between L1 and L2 in the distribution patterns of linking devices and their functions in developing coherence. To develop the awareness of linking devices, practice exercises on linking devices (e.g. multiple choice questions, error correction, blank filling and paraphrase using conjunction) should be employed for the teaching of linking devices in ESL pedagogy. All of them have emphasized the teaching of linking devices in ESL pedagogy for making ESL learners able to communicate successfully and accurately in the second language.

Tyler et al. (1988) focused on the teaching of ‘however’, ‘but’ and ‘and’ in their empirical study of Korean and Chinese graduate students. They found that ESL learners’ use of these linking devices creates confusion in the understanding of their discourse to the native listeners (Americans). So, they emphasize the teaching of adversative ‘however’, ‘but’ and ‘and’ in the classroom for making the learners’ communication more effective. The same evidence comes from the study of Field and Yip (1992) who reported that ESL learners (Cantonese) use conjunction more frequently than native speakers and their frequent use of conjunctions did not improve their writing quality. They found that ESL learners made frequent use of conjunctions at sentence-initial level and this affected the coherence of their writing. They also suggested the teaching of linking devices in ESL classroom.

Scollon (1993) conducted an empirical study on Chinese learners to investigate the use of the linking device ‘but’ (additive, adversative, causal and repetitive). He found that the ESL learners used ‘but’ for only the adversative function and this created confusion in the proper interpretation of text. He named this difficulty “accumulative ambiguity”. One more study regarding ambiguity has been reported by Schleppegrell (1996). He examined the use of conjunction in spoken English and ESL writing. He found that ESL writers used the conjunction ‘because’ to confirm their assertion, to introduce independent segments, and to link the parts of discourse, and they erroneously transferred these strategies from their spoken English into their ESL writing

because the conjunction 'because' is used for these functions (stated above) in spoken English. On the basis of the results, he suggested that the understanding of the functions of conjunction in spoken and written English is important and it should be practised.

A recent evidence comes from the findings of Zhang (2000), through an empirical study on 107 ESL Chinese University graduate students, using the quantitative and qualitative method and, using the framework and taxonomy of Halliday and Hasan (1976), that proper use of cohesive devices are essential for constructing a coherent text. For his research, Zhang gave expository writing tasks to the subjects to investigate the use of cohesive devices (reference, conjunction and lexical cohesion) and he found that ESL learners made frequent use of these cohesive devices in their writing tasks, but these devices were not related to the quality of writing. All three types of cohesive links were overused and misused. A more recent study has been reported by Sun (2005 and 2006) who found that Chinese ESL learners used 'but' in a way that differed in function from the native speakers' English. He concluded that the use of 'but' and other linking devices should be the focus of ESL pedagogy for effective communication (professional, business and cross-cultural communication).

All the above studies have emphasized the use of linking devices or conjunction in classroom teaching. On the other hand, there is a study by Kang (2005) that reported different findings from the above studies. He tried to find the transfer of cohesion and discourse markers in the written discourse (narratives) of the L2 of Korean English writers. To investigate the accurate use of cohesive devices, Korean English writers' discourse strategies were compared with those of native English speakers. Through the use of a quantitative method, discourse markers were analyzed and the results showed that Korean learners of English made use of English linking devices: 'and', 'because', 'so', 'therefore' and so on successfully; but further it was also

found that they used their L1 written discourse strategies, and preferred to avoid using target language styles and strategies.

## **Relevance of the Present Study**

In the light of the above mentioned body of research, conjunctions and other linking devices seem to be an important area for ESL pedagogy. The present study aims to examine whether conjunctions are transferred from L1 to L2, and whether there is a need emphasize the teaching of conjunctions in the ESL classroom as the previous studies have suggested. In Indian universities (e.g., A.M.U.), English language teaching materials have myriad grammatical exercises on linking devices and conjunctions, and a lot of time of the academic session is spent on the teaching of these items and on completing these grammatical exercises. It was perceived by the researcher through her own experience and intuition that linking devices, especially conjunctions are successfully transferred from L1 to L2 and the time spent on teaching them may be saved and used in other fields of language learning. Therefore, she tried to find out through her study whether the teaching of conjunctions can be de-emphasized in the ESL classroom pedagogy, and this time be shifted to other fruitful areas because ESL learners transfer conjunctions from L1 to L2 and can use them correctly and appropriately in their speech and writing.

## **Aim of the Study**

The aim of this study was to find out whether linking devices, that is, especially conjunctions present a significant need in ESL pedagogy and the following questions were framed to be answered through the study:

1. Are conjunctions successfully transferred from L1 to L2?
2. Should conjunctions be made the focus of teaching in ESL pedagogy?

## **Subjects**

The participants were the students of XI<sup>th</sup> and XII<sup>th</sup> class, studying in Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh. These subjects were from different educational backgrounds, making the heterogeneous environment of the classroom. Their linguistic background was either Hindi or Urdu, considered here as two dialects from a single language, sometimes named as Hindustani. Their lexical items are different to some extent, but the basic syntactic structure is more or less the same. Hindustani was used here, as a single language for data collection.

Thus, the group under study consisted of fifteen students (twelve boys + three girls), each with an intermediate level of linguistic competence and proficiency in English as their second language. All students shared more or less a similar level of English linguistic competence with about eleven years of English learning experience before their current year of study in the university. Among the fifteen students, only a single student chose to write in the Urdu script but the rest of them wrote in Hindi/Devnagri script.

## **Instruments**

To investigate the effect of L1 transfer of conjunctions to L2 writing composition, the researcher assigned three tasks of three different types to each student: descriptive, narrative and expository. The participants were required to attempt a task in each category both in their L1 and L2. The tasks were the following:

### **Descriptive task: (word limit: 100 words)**

In the first task, they were required to describe any one of the following:

1. Making tea.
2. Looking up the meaning of a word in a dictionary.
3. Getting a book issued from the library.

**Narrative task:** (word limit: 150 words)

In the second task, they were asked to attempt any one of the following:

1. An accident.
2. A ghost story.
3. An interesting incident of your life.

**Expository task:** (word limit: 200 words)

In the third task, they were asked to compose an argumentative text on any one of the following topics:

1. Hypocrisy is a virtue.
2. Relations are a nuisance.
3. Exploring the past is a purposeless activity.

## **Procedure**

Initially, for her data collection, the researcher engaged the classes for three days. For this purpose, she took two classes per day in the boys' section and two classes per day in the girls' section. Thus, there were four classes per day. In three days, there were twelve classes in both the sections; and in each class, the number of students was approximately twenty five. Hence, the researcher began her research on a hundred students but the students started to be absent in the second and third classes. For three days, she had to occupy the classes of the same students because in one class, the students completed only one task. So, for the second task, the researcher took a class of the same students on the next day, and for the third task she had to occupy one more class of those students who participated in the first and second tasks. Finally, she collected forty five sheets of the tasks (descriptive, narrative and expository) from fifteen students, three task sheets from each student (See Appendix I).

General instructions were given on the sheets themselves. Firstly, the participants had to write the composition in their L1 (Hindi/Urdu) then they had to translate the text into L2. These general instructions were also read aloud by the researcher in the class after distributing the sheets to each student. They were told that these classes were important for their writing skills; and that the tasks would give them practice in writing and would be helpful for their examination. The participants were provided dictionaries (Hindi/Urdu to English) for looking up difficult words or those words which were not known to them in L2.

## **Results**

Initially, the researcher made individual calculations of the each student's use and transfer of linking devices. She also calculated positively and negatively transferred conjunctions/linking devices and additional linking devices both in the L1 and L2 scripts (See Appendix I). For individual calculation, she took out three, four or five sentences from the L1 script and the corresponding sentences of the same number from the L2 script. For each individual task, the researcher counted the total number of transferred linking devices, positively and negatively transferred linking devices and number of additional linking devices in both the scripts. Thus, she made individual calculations for forty five scripts of descriptive, narrative and expository tasks written by fifteen students, as each student had performed three tasks. The three types of composition in L1 and L2 by three different students have been reproduced below for exemplification (the errors of the original scripts have been reproduced). This is followed by the analysis of linking devices used by them in corresponding tables.



## **Task 1 (Descriptive)**

**Name of the Student:** Naeem Ahmad

### **L1 Script: चाय बनाने की विधि**

सबसे पहले एक भगोना लें और उसमें एक कप पानी डालें। फिर गैस जलाएं और भगोना आग पर रख दें। जब पानी उबलने लगे तो उसमें चाय पत्ती डालें और गैस पर धीरे से रखें। जब चाय पत्ती अपना रंग छोड़ दे और पानी का रंग काला हो जाए तो उसमें 1/3 (भाग) दुग्ध डाल दें और एक चम्मच शक्कर डालें। जब मिश्रण में उबाल आए तो गैस बन्द कर के भगोना उतार लें। आपकी चाय तैयार है।

### **L2 Script: Making tea**

First of all, take a pan and add a cup of water into it. Then light the gas and put the pan on the burner. When the water gets boiled then add some tea-leaves and stir it gently on the gas. When it gives colour, add 1 / 3 cup of milk to it and add also a full spoon of sugar. Finally when it gets boiled, switch off the gas and put off the pan from the gas. Your tea is ready.

## Analysis of Transfer of L1 Linking Devices to L2 Writing

Name of the student: Naeem Ahmad      Class: XI11th      Mother tongue: Hindi  
 Descriptive Writing Task: Making tea.

L1 Script			L2 Script							
Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additi onal linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additi onal linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferr ed linking devices	Negative ly transferr ed linking devices
1 सबसे पहले डाले।	सबसे पहले, और	-	2	1 Take a pan in it	First of all, and	First of all, and	-	2	First of all, and	-
2 फिर गैस रख दें।	फिर और	-	2	2 Then light burner	Then, and	Then, and	-	2	Then, and	-
3 जब पानी डालें	जब, तो, और	-	3	3 When the water gas	When, then, and	When, then, and	-	3	When, and	Then
4 जब चाय बककर डालें	जब और, तो	तो	3	4 When it sugar	When, and, also	When, and	Also	3	When, and	-
5 जब मिश्रण तैयार है।	जब तो	तो	2	5. Finally gas	Finally, when, and	When	Finally, and	3	When	-

- Total number of analyzed sentences:  $5 (L1) + 5 (L2) = 10$
- Total number of linking devices in L1: 12
- Additional linking devices in L1: 2
- Total number of linking devices in L2: 13
- Additional linking devices in L2: 3
- Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 10
- Total number of positively transferred linking devices in L2: 9
- Total number of negatively transferred linking devices in L2: 1

**Table 1**

In the descriptive task performed by Naeem Ahmad, the researcher found twelve linking devices in five sentences of the L1 script and thirteen linking devices in the corresponding sentences of the L2 script, used to achieve cohesion in the description of making tea. In L2, the learner transferred ten linking devices from the L1 script such as: 'जब to *when*', 'और to *and*' etc.; and three additional linking devices were used. Nine conjunctions were employed positively and there was one conjunction which the student used negatively. Some of the positively transferred linking devices are as follows:

जब मिश्रण में उबाल आए तो गैस बन्द कर के भगोना उतार लें।

*Finally when* it gets boiled, switch off the gas *and* put off the pan from the gas.

The example of negative transfer can be found in the following:

जब पानी उबलने लगे तो उसमें चाय पत्ती डालें और गैस पर धीरे से रखें।

*When* the water gets boiled *then* add some tea leaves *and* stir it gently on the gas stove.

According to English language rules, the use of *then* is inappropriate with the linking devices *when* because here, only a comma is required. *Finally*, *and*, etc. are additional linking devices in the above sentence.

## Task 2 (Narrative)

Name of the Student: Nabeel Mushtaq Ahmed

### L1 Script: एक दुर्घटना

जब मैं कल अपने विद्यालय से घर लौट रहा था तो मैंने देखा कि रेलवे क्रासिंग के पास लोगों की भीड़ एकत्रित थी। बात चीत करने पर पता चला कि यहां एक रेलगाड़ी से साइकिल सवार व्यक्ति की मृत्यु हो गयी है। पूछताछ से मालूम हुआ कि वह व्यक्ति क्रासिंग को पार कर रहा था और दाये से ट्रेन आ रही थी, पर भी वह चल रहा था अतः चलती ट्रेन ने उसे

रौंद दिया। मैं देखता हूं कि पत्रकार आ गये और जांच कर रहे हैं। प्रशासन भी पहुंच गया था। मृत व्यक्ति को पोस्टमार्टम के लिये भेज दिया गया। यह एक दर्दनाक हादसा था।

### **L2 Script: An accident**

Yesterday when I was returning my home from the school, I saw that a crowd of people gathered near the railway crossing. After discussing with some people, I found that there, a dangerous accident was happened of a cycle man with a train. After talking I had to know that the man was crossing the railway line and the train was coming from the left side but he went continuously without fear hence that train crushed him. I saw that news-reporters had come and police force also came. The dead body of that man was sent for the postmortem. It was a terrible accident.

## Analysis of Transfer of L1 Linking Devices to L2 Writing

Name of the student: Nabeel Mustaque Ahmed  
Narrative Writing Task: An accident

Class: X1th

Mother tongue: Hindi

L1 Script

L2 Script

Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1 जब मैं एकत्रित हो।	जब, तो, कि	तो	3	1 When yesterday the railway	When, that	When, that	-	2	When, that	-
2 बातचीत करने हो गयी है।	पर, कि	-	2	2 After a train	After, that	After, that	-	2	After, that	-
3 पूछताछ से रीढ़ दिया।	कि, पर, और, भी, अतः	-	5	3 After taking him	After, that, but, and, hence, also	That, but, and, also, hence	After	6	That, but, and, also, hence	-
4 मैं देखता रहे हैं।	कि, और	-	2	4 I saw come	That, and	That, and	-	2	That, and	-

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $4(L1) + 4(L2) = 8$

2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 12

3. Additional linking devices in L1: 1

4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 12

5. Additional linking devices in L2: 1

6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 11

7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 11

8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

**Table 2**

In the narrative task performed by Nabeel Mushtaq Ahmed, the researcher found twelve linking devices in the L1 and twelve translated into the L2 task. He translated linking devices such as 'कि to *that*' पर to *but*, और to *and*, अतः to *hence*, भी to *also* and so on. Eleven linking devices were transferred positively. One conjunction was used additionally in the L1 script and one in the L2 script. Some examples of transferred linking devices are the following:

जब मैं कल अपने विद्यालय से घर लौट रहा था तो मैंने देखा कि रेलवे क्रॉसिंग के पास लोगों की भीड़ एकत्रित थी।

Yesterday *when* I was returning my home from the school, I saw *that* a crowd of people gathered near the railway crossing.

### Task 3 (Expository)

Name of the Student: Kuldedeep

L1 Script: सम्बन्ध मूर्खता है।

श्रीमान, कौन कहता है कि सम्बन्ध मूर्खता है? भूतकाल की तरह वर्तमान काल में भी सम्बन्ध पूजनीय होते हैं। क्या हमारी भारतीय सभ्यता के अनुसार आज भी हम प्रातः काल में उठकर अपने माता-पिता के चरण स्पर्श नहीं करते? क्या जो माता हमें अपनी कोख से जन्म देती है, हम मरते दम तक उसका आदर-सत्कार नहीं करते? क्या उसको भगवान का ही एक रूप नहीं मानते? यही सम्बन्ध है जो हमें संसार में कुछ कर दिखाने के लिए प्रेरित करते हैं। हमारे मन में चाहे जो भी हो परन्तु अनायास ही हृदय के एक कोने से एक आवाज सुनाई देती है प्रेम का स्वर उसी को एक आदेश मानकर हम अपने रिश्तेदारों की आज्ञा का पालन नहीं करते। यह एक स्नेह, सहानुभूतिमय व्यवहार होता है जो कि हम सबको एक सूत्र में बांधता है। हमारी एक-एक उपलब्धता से हमारे माता-पिता का सिर गौरवान्वित होता है। परन्तु हमारी ही एक छोटी सी त्रुटि से हमारे संस्कार धरे रह जाते हैं और कुल की नाक कट जाती है और नेत्र झुक जाते हैं।

पं० जवाहरलाल नेहरू जब जेल में थे तब भी वह अपनी पुत्री को नहीं भूले और उन्हें पत्र लिखते रहे। यह रिश्तेदारों की जुदाई, स्वर्गवास हो

जाने का ही आक्रोश था जिसने भारतवासियों को अंग्रेजों के विरोध में क्रांति करने के लिए प्रोत्साहित किया। इससे यह सिद्ध होता है कि रिश्ते में आज भी शक्ति है।

### **L2 Script: Relations are a nuisance.**

Sir, who says that relations are a nuisance? Is there anyone who does not follow the relations? In the present, relations are respectable like the past time. According to our Indian culture, do we touch the feet of our parents in the morning? Do we not give respect to our mother till our death, who gives us birth from her womb? These are the relations which inspire us to do something in the world. Then what may be in our hearts but we respect our relatives to hear the voice of our love. It is our lovely and sympathetic behaviour which ties us in a knot. Our parents feel proud of our achievements. But when we do any mistake, our parents feel ashamed and the nose of our family is cut and our parents' eyes feel ashamed.

When Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru was in jail, he did not forget his daughter in that condition and he also wrote letters to his dearest daughter. It was the anger of the death of their relatives that inspired Indians for revolt against the British. This proves that relation is not nuisance. It is a gift of God.

## Analysis of Transfer of L1 Linking Devices to L2 Writing

Name of the student: Kuldeep

Class: XIth

Mother tongue: Hindi

Expository Writing Task: Relations are a nuisance.

L1 Script

L2 Script

Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1 श्रीमान . हैं	कि	-	1	1 Sir nuisance	That	That	-	1	That	-
2 यही सम्बन्ध करते हैं।	जो	-	1	2 These are world	Which	Which	-	1	Which	-
3 हमारे मन कहते।	परन्तु	-	1	3 Then what love	Then, but	But	Then	2	But	-
4 परन्तु हमारी जाते हैं।	परन्तु और और	-	3	4 But when we ashamed.	But, when, and, and	But, and, and	When	4	But, and, and	-
5 पं० जवाहरलाल नेहरू रहे।	जब, तब, भी और	तब,	4	5 Nehru Pandit daughter	When, and, also	when, and, also	-	3	When, and, also	-
6 इससे यह शक्ति है।	कि	-	1	6 This proves nuisance	That	That	-	1	That	-

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $6(L1) + 6(L2) = 12$

2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 11

3. Additional linking devices in L1: 1

4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 12

5. Additional linking devices in L2: 2

6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 10

7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 10

8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

Table 3



In the expository task performed by Kuldeep, eleven linking devices in L1 and twelve linking devices in L2 were employed in which ten were transferred positively. There were two additional linking devices in L2 script and one additional linking device was in L1 script. Kuldeep employed various types of linking devices such as: कि to *that*, जो to *which*, परन्तु to *but*, और to *and* and so on. The example of positively transferred linking device is the following:

श्रीमान, कौन कहता है कि सम्बन्ध मूर्खता है?

Sir, who says *that* relations are nuisance?

At the second stage in the analysis of the result, the researcher calculated the totality of the occurrence of linking devices/discourse markers in the whole corpus of both languages (Hindi/Urdu and English). For the L1 writing task, the researcher counted the occurrence of linking devices, positively and negatively transferred linking devices and additional linking devices in 218 sentences. It was found that in the L1 writing compositions, there were 495 linking devices and 67 additional conjunctions were present in the whole corpus. In the L2 writing tasks, there were 561 conjunctions in 218 corresponding sentences. Among them, there were 134 additional connectors and 428 were transferred cohesive ties in the L2 corpus. In the total corpus 425 linkers were employed positively.

As table 4 below shows, in the descriptive task, there were 138 conjunctions in 68 sentences in L1 writing, while 8 conjunctions were additional conjunctions. For the L2 writing task, the subjects employed 168 linking devices in 68 sentences. Among 168 linking devices, 130 linkers were transferred, 38 conjunctions were additional. In the L1 narrative task, ESL learners applied 167 cohesive links in 68 sentences and 33 additional linking devices were present in the whole corpus. In the L2 writing task, they transferred 134 linkers out of 162 linking devices from the L1 writing in 68 corresponding sentences while 28 linkers were used additionally. In the L1 expository task, the learners employed 190 linking devices in 82 sentences. Among 190, 26 were additional linking devices. In the L2 expository writing task, the students used 232 linking devices and among them, 164 were transferred linking devices and 68 were additional linking devices. Further, it was found that most of the transferred linking devices were the manifestations of positive transfer, since the total number of negatively transferred linking devices was only 3 in the whole corpus.

### Transfer of L1 Linking Devices from L1 to L2 Writing in the Total Corpus

Title	Descriptive Task	Narrative task	Expository Task	Total
Total no. of analyzed sentences in L1 & L2	136(68+68)	136(68+68)	164(82+82)	436 (218+218)
Total no. of linking devices in L1	138	167	190	495
Total no. of additional linking devices in L1	8	33	26	67
Total no. linking devices in L2	168	162	232	561
Total no. of additional linking devices in L2	38	28	68	134
Total no. of transferred linking devices in L2	130	134	164	428
Total no. of positively transferred linking devices in L2	127	134	164	425
Total no. of negatively transferred linking devices in L2	3	0	0	3

**Table 4**

Given these initial findings, the researcher isolated the percentage of the occurrence of transfer, positively and negatively transferred, and additional linking devices in L2 writing as table 5 below shows:

**Percentage of Transfer of Linking Devices from L1 to L2  
Writing in the Total Corpus**

Title	Descriptive Task	Narrative task	Expository Task	Total
Percentage of transferred linking devices	94.20%	80.23%	86.31%	86.46%
Percentage of additional linking devices	22.62%	17.28%	29.31%	23.88%
Percentage of positively transferred linking devices	97.69%	100%	100%	99.29%
Percentage of negatively transferred linking devices	02.31%	0%	0%	00.70%

**Table 5**

In the descriptive task, the percentage of transferred linking devices was 94.20 in the L2 corpus. Additional linking devices were 22.62%. In the narrative task, 80.23% transferred linking devices were found and 17.28% linking devices were additional in L2 writing. In the expository writing, the percentage of transferred linking devices was 86.31 and 29.31% linking devices were used additionally in L2 writing. After calculating the percentage of linking devices in each task, the researcher counted the total percentage of transferred linking devices from L1 to L2 and additional linking devices in the whole corpus. In the whole corpus, 86.46% discourse markers, i.e.,

conjunctions were the result of transfer or direct translation from L1. There were 23.88% additional linking devices in L2 corpus.

The researcher also calculated the percentage of the use of positively and negatively transferred linking devices from L1 to L2 in order to better understand the effect of transfer of conjunctions on the production of written discourse, as table 5 above shows. The percentage of positively transferred linking devices was 99.29% in the whole L2 corpus. In the descriptive task, the use of positively transferred conjunctions was 97.69%. In the narrative and expository tasks, the percentage was 100% and 100% respectively. In both the narrative and expository tasks, there was no linking device which is transferred negatively. In the descriptive task, only 02.31% conjunctions were the effect of negative transfer. In the whole corpus, only 00.70% conjunctions have been used negatively.

## **Discussion**

The researcher had conducted the study in order to answer the following two questions:

**Q. 1.** Are conjunctions successfully transferred from L1 to L2?

**Q. 2.** Should linking devices/conjunctions be made the focus of teaching in ESL pedagogy?

The answer to the first question will be discussed in the light of the findings of the empirical study. First of all, the researcher will discuss the occurrence/use of the transfer (positive and negative) of linking devices from L1 to L2 writing.

## **Use of Transferred Linking Devices**

As the results of the study shows, ESL learners successfully transferred or translated 86.46% linking devices from L1 writing compositions to L2 writing

compositions in the whole corpus. The effect of L1 transfer of linking devices, that is, conjunctions is evidently helpful because L1 linking devices have facilitated achieving cohesion in L2 writing. The learners transferred various types of linking devices (causal, temporal, conditional and adversative etc.) which are applicable in L2 writing without distorting the rules of L2 cohesion. For example:

1. श्रीमान, कौन कहता है कि सम्बन्ध मूर्खता है?
2. एक लाइब्रेरी जहां लाखों की संख्या में किताबें हों वहां किसी एक किताब को खोजना बहुत मुश्किल है।
3. बीता हुआ कल बदला नहीं जा सकता इसलिए उसे लेकर रोना बेवकूफी है।
4. जब मैं कल अपने विद्यालय से घर लौट रहा था तो मैंने देखा कि रेलवे क्रॉसिंग के पास लोगों की भीड़ एकत्रित थी।

Transferred linking devices in the corresponding L2 sentences:

1. Sir, who says *that* relations are a nuisance?
2. It is very difficult to get a particular book from a library *where* books are in lakhs.
3. Past can not be changed *so* it is purposeless to think about it.
4. Yesterday *when* I was returning my home from the school. I saw *that* a crowd of people gathered near the railway crossing.

In the above sentences, linking devices have been transferred successfully without distorting the meaning of L2 written discourse. The learners have transferred 'कि to *that*', 'जहां to *where*', 'अतः to *so*' and 'जब to *when*' etc. according to L2 norms and rules. Thus, the answer to the first question proposed at the beginning of the study is in the affirmative, that is, learners do transfer conjunctions from L1 to L2 and they mostly do so successfully.

### **Positively Transferred Linking Devices**

As the data shows, ESL learners transferred 99.29% positively out of 561 linking devices(see Table 5). The researcher also compared the percentage of positively transferred linking devices among three (descriptive, narrative and expository) compositions. In the descriptive task, they transferred 97.69% linking devices positively and only 02.31% linking devices were used negatively. In the narrative task, they produced 100% linking devices positively and in the expository task, they also transferred 100% correct linking devices according to grammatical rules.

It is seen that, Indian schools, colleges and universities design their syllabus of English overloaded with grammar exercises. A considerable number of these writing exercises are devoted to linking devices, and a lot of time is spent in teaching the organizational rules of cohesion in the written text. The results of the present study show that second language learners successfully transfer linking devices from their L1 to their L2. It gives the answer to the second question of the research: even if the ESL learners are not loaded with grammar exercises on linking devices, especially conjunctions, they can make the use of transfer and arrive at the correct L2 linking devices from their L1. Thus, the answer is clear that the focus of teaching of linking devices, i.e., conjunctions in ESL pedagogy can be shifted to other fruitful areas. So, if at the initial level of ESL pedagogy, they are taught the L2 equivalents of L1 linking devices, they can transfer them positively in addition to those L1 linking devices which are not applicable in L2 writing, and this initial level may be their primary schooling.

### **Negatively Transferred Linking Devices**

As the results of the study show, most ESL learners transferred linking devices positively. Second language learners in the present study have transferred only

00.70% linking devices negatively but these linking devices do not distort the meaning of L2 grammatical rules and structures. For example:

*When* the water gets boiled *then* add some tea leaves *and* stir it gently on the gas stove.

*When* the mixture gets boiled *then* we put one cup of milk and sugar into it.

In Hindi/Urdu language, it is common and usual to use 'जब' with 'तो/तब' while in English language, it is not common, as native speakers use 'when' without the following 'then'. So, the use of 'then' with 'when' by ESL learners sometimes appears odd but it does not create problem in the understanding the meaning. In other words, it does not affect the intelligibility. Here, the learners use 'when' followed by 'then' because in describing a process it is necessary to use linkers such as: 'when', 'and', 'then.' They transfer these linking devices from their L1 while in the narrative and the expository writings, they make correct use of L2 linking devices. (It can be said that the use of 'when' followed by 'then' is inappropriate if not incorrect.)

### **Additional Linking Devices**

Table 5 shows the total percentage of additional linking devices which was 23.88%. The percentage of additional linking devices in descriptive, narrative and expository tasks was calculated and the data demonstrate that additional linking devices are sometimes employed by the students from their L2 repertoire of knowledge. These linking devices may or may not be the result of transfer. That is, it might be the case that the additional linking devices used by the student in his/her L2 script are learnt through transfer from L1, or it might not exist in L1 and might be independently learnt from L2. This factor has not been investigated by the researcher. For example:

इतिहास अर्थात् अतीत के ज्ञान को उजागर करना हमारी मातृभूमि एवं उसकी संस्कृति के लिए लाभान्वित है।



Exploring the hidden knowledge of our past *or* history is advantageous *not only* for our nation *but also* for our culture.

In L1 script, the learner has employed ‘अथत्’ and ‘एवं’. The first is translated but the latter has not been transferred to L2. Furthermore, in the L2 sentence ‘*not only ... but also*’ occurs additionally. Additional linking devices however, occur rarely because almost always, ESL learners transfer linking devices from L1 to L2. In using additional linking devices, ESL learners show the use of their previous and present L2 competence and proficiency which they possess on the basis of their learning experience of eleven years.

Hence, it is clear that ESL learners transfer their L1 cohesive devices to L2 writing compositions. They frequently use linking devices such as: ‘*and, but, therefore, because, that, so, if, when, first of all, that’s why, then, now, after, thus, as well as, until, or, not only... but also*’ and so on all of which appear to have been translated from their L1. The answers of both the questions are found that linking devices are transferred from L1 to L2, and the teaching of linking devices need not be the focus of ESL pedagogy.

## **Conclusion and Pedagogical Implications**

The results of the study show that most second language learners transfer linking devices from their L1 to their L2 writing. The data show that second language undergraduate students transfer 86.46% linking devices from their L1 to L2 writing. The results also suggest that in L2 writing (descriptive, narrative and expository), second language learners use their L1 knowledge to organize cohesive texts. The students have used only 23.88% linking devices which seem to be either non-transferred or additional linking devices, in the comparative L1 and L2 texts. However, it might very well be the case that these additional linking devices are also learnt through the process of L1 transfer. It might also mean that they also make some use of their L2 knowledge in their L2 writing.

In Aligarh Muslim University or any other university of India, teaching materials include a large number of grammar exercises at the undergraduate level for learners of English. These grammar exercises aim at teaching them the proper use of sentence construction, prepositions, conjunctions, articles, parts of sentence (subject-predicate), sentence synthesis (participle, gerund, infinitive etc.) and interjections etc. For L2 writing, material producers lay emphasis on the rules of linking devices to construct meaningful text. A large amount of time is devoted to the learning of conjunctions and other linking devices. In this study, the researcher had set out with the aim to answer the questions whether linking devices/conjunctions are transferred from L1 to L2, and whether there is a need to make them the focus of teaching in ESL pedagogy. The data has revealed that most students successfully transfer their L1 knowledge of linking devices to L2, which obviously suggests that there is no need to spend a considerable amount of time on their teaching.

A very small number of linking devices were used negatively which implies that there should be a little practice of those linking devices which can not be transferred successfully to L2. If these linking devices are transferred directly to L2, they might produce erroneous forms. Among fifteen students, there were only two students who have transferred L1 linking devices wrongly to L2. They are the following:

जब मिश्रण उबलने लगता है तब उसमें एक कप दूध और चीनी डाल देते हैं।

*When* the mixture gets boiled *then* we put one cup of milk and sugar into it.

Here, only the punctuation 'comma' is sufficient for filling the gap of the L1 linking device, such as: ....

*When* the mixture gets boiled, we put one cup of milk and sugar into it.

The use of '*then*' in the second clause after '*when*' in the first clause is not used in native speakers' discourse. But the use of these linking devices (*when...then*)

does not affect the intelligibility as native listeners/audience can still understand the meaning of the sentence. There is a need however, that these linking devices are explicitly taught and learners are made aware of these types of linking devices in a few classes. Specially, there seems to be no necessity for plenty of exercises on the correct use of L2 conjunctions.

To sum up, the results of the study show that learners transfer various linking devices successfully to L2 from their L1 applicable to the L2 writing task or task situation, e.g., adversative, causal, temporal, additive etc. In the light of the above observation, it is suggested that grammar exercises on the use of linking devices at the undergraduate level be de-emphasized and valuable time spent on these exercises be shifted to other more important areas of vocabulary and syntax and also to other types of linking devices such as English pronouns, ellipsis and substitution which differ from L1 use. Linking devices and especially conjunctions form a small and closed system of lexical items which can be easily taught to Indian students through their L1 equivalents at the beginning levels.

*Chapter IV*  
*Transfer of Discourse*  
*Competence: A Study of*  
*Speech Acts*

## **CHAPTER IV**

### **TRANSFER OF DISCOURSE COMPETENCE: A STUDY OF SPEECH ACTS**

#### **Introduction**

Speech act theory has probably raised the most interest among the theories of language function and usage. Speech act can be defined as how to do things with words. It does not see language as only grammatical or linguistic unit but it deals with the usage of language or the production of grammatical units or the function of language in actual situations and appropriate social context. Searle (1969) who coined the term 'speech act' taking a clue from Austin's (1962) notion 'How to Do Things with Words', defines speech act, "The basic or minimal unit of linguistic communication" (p:16) and further says,

"The unit of linguistic communication is not, as has generally been supposed, the symbol, word or sentence, ...but rather the production of the symbol or word or sentence in the performance of the speech act." (1969:16)

The origin of speech acts has come from the notions of Austin (1962) and Searle (1969) that has been developed and spread in a number of fields and disciplines such as, linguistics, language acquisition works, anthropology, ethnography and literary criticism. Speech act research underlies the work on syllabus design of Wilkins (1976) and the Council of Europe (Van Ek and Alexander, 1975), the work on the analysis classroom interaction (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975), the work on second language acquisition (Wolfson and Judd, 1983), the work on interlanguage pragmatics [Fraser et al. (1980), Kasper (1984) and Blum-Kulka (1991)] and the work on contrastive pragmatics [Garcia (1992), Baba and Lian (1992), Ellis (1992) and Izaki (2000)].

In the area of second language learning and teaching, speech act is a vital component of the notion of communicative competence, a term named by Hymes (1972). Hymes argued that competence must include the rules of use as well as grammatical rule and he has focused on the language function in appropriate context Canale and Swain (1980) have described the importance of discourse competence as well as grammatical competence and Bachman (1990) has divided communicative competence into organizational competence (e.g., grammatical: lexis, morphology and syntax, and discourse: text, coherence and cohesion) and pragmatic competence is to know how to use language appropriately according to the given situation. It attempts to describe how to perform things with words. Actually, speech act refers to the function or the action that a sentence/utterance performs. As Austin has claimed that all utterances are not simply statements of fact, some are 'performatives'. He has defined a performative to be where 'the uttering of a sentence is, or is a part of, the doing of an action' (1962: 5). For example, 'fixed rate' written on a shop performs a guide for customers that there is no chance of bargaining. Further Austin has claimed that all utterances that act are divided into the following functions:

1. Locutionary: an 'act of saying something' (p: 99). For example,

Close the door.

This is a simple statement under normal circumstances. It refers to the saying of words which determine meaning.

2. Illocutionary: an 'act in saying something' (p: 99). For example,

Close the door.

This is not simply a statement but it functions with illocutionary force so it may have different functions (an order, an advice, a request) according to social context.

3. Perlocutionary: producing 'certain consequential effects upon the feelings, thoughts, or actions of the audience or of the speaker, or of other persons' (p: 101). For example,

Close the door.

The effect of this particular speech act (perlocutionary effect of order) is on the feelings, thoughts of the listener or on the particular circumstances. The listener might be angry to listen the order.

Searle has also asserted the functions of speech as “the speaker utters a sentence, means what he says, but also means something more or means something else” (1985: 30). He has produced a taxonomy of speech acts as follows:

1. Assertives: It tells people the truth of conveyed message or how things are in actual situations. It may be a statement or a conclusion of speech.
2. Directives: It tries to get people to do things. It may be a question, a request or an order.
3. Commissives: It commits us to do things in future. It may be a promise, an offer or a threat.
4. Expressives: It expresses our feelings and attitudes (psychological state). It may be an apology, a thank, a welcome or a wish.
5. Declaratives: It brings about changes in the world through our utterances. It may be an announcement, a declaration of war etc.

He makes a distinction between stating (literal meaning) and doing (functional meaning).

This chapter views firstly, the speech acts and contrastive pragmatics in short; secondly, it covers some research on contrastive pragmatics. The third part which is the main part of the chapter, investigates the effect of L1 transfer on L2 pragmatics through conducting a research on 30 students (15 for written dialogue and 15 for interviews) of Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh, India.

## **Contrastive Pragmatics**

Pragmatics is a novel area in ESL research. Since 1980s, it has come into existence. It is a branch of linguistics. It deals with the use of grammatical rules in actual situations. As communication in actual contexts takes place by means of language and language users communicate and use language in society. Society determines the use of language whether linguistic or communicative. Pragmatics is a branch of linguistics and communication, studying the functions of language in appropriate social contexts and pragmatics assesses the effect of society and culture on language use. Levinson defines pragmatics as,

“...the study of language from a functional perspective, that is, that it attempts to explain facets of linguistic structure by reference to non-linguistic pressures and causes.” (1983: 7)

Mey defines, “Pragmatics studies the use of language in human communication as determined by the conditions of society” (1993: 6). Thus, pragmatics is mainly, concerned with the rules of language use in social context.

Contrastive pragmatics is the study of the performances rules of language use across cultures or it studies pragmatics between two cultures contrastively. The contrastive pragmatics that have been studied for the past twenty years are very significant in making insights into ESL learning that native speakers and second language learners show differences in their oral production and dialogue writing in the context of appropriate speech. Although there is a lack of detailed and specified contrastive pragmatics descriptions yet language researchers and applied linguists have carried on the studies on contrastive pragmatics, e.g., requests, apologies, thanks, refusals, greetings and other forms of pragmatics; and they have gained detailed information that has helped them in pointing out the probable factors and cases of discourse transfer. The contrastive pragmatics research play significant role in ESL learning because it predicts the problems and the level of problems relating L2 discourse learning. The learners of ESL violate the norms of speech/writing in



L2 context due to the transfer of L1 cultural/social norms of speech/writing e.g., an Indian ESL learner greets 'Good night', when he/she meets anyone in the night likewise 'Good morning' and 'Good evening'- greetings at day time, which becomes absurd to native listener because 'Good night' is a speech act of parting in the night. This type of violation is more dangerous than the violation of syntax, lexis and pronunciation because it creates misunderstanding in the interpretation of discourse. Hence, contrastive pragmatics studies are more important than other areas of discourse in language learning.

### **Research on Speech Acts**

There are myriad studies on speech acts which display the differences in the production and comprehension of ESL learners and native speakers. But it is difficult to report all the studies related to contrastive pragmatics and the researcher has attempted to present a limited number of studies.

### **Research on General Pragmatic Awareness**

A number of studies examine second language learners' pragmatic awareness. The main purpose of these studies is to investigate the function of language. The focus of these studies is on speech acts e.g., requests, advice, apologies, suggestions and greetings etc.

Koike (1996) investigated the general pragmatic awareness and development among Spanish second language learners. She examined the proficiency level of learners who were divided into three groups: first year, second year and third or fourth year students staying in the second language context. A videotape of seven scenarios (recorded by a native speaker) was shown and it was asked of them to recognize the type of speech act (suggestion) and to give the answer to each speech act. For obtaining the

results, statistical comparison of each group's proficiency with native speakers' proficiency level was made and it was found that the third or fourth year students did better than the first and second year students. Her study proved that the staying period in the L2 environment affects the learning.

Schauer (2006) conducted a study on sixteen German students studying at a British university, seventeen students of higher studies and twenty native British students. Schauer observed that the length of period in the target language country influenced the learners' pragmatic learning. The instruments were video-taped material and questionnaires of Bardovi-Harlig and Dornyei with post hoc interviews. It was found that the length of staying in L2 context or exposure in L2 environment played an important role in the learning of pragmatic awareness.

### **Research on Requests**

On requests there are many studies which have showed differences between the perception of non-native and native speakers. Some important studies on the use of request strategies across cultures have been discussed below.

Carrell and Konneker (1981) examined the similarities and differences in politeness of requests between ESL learners (Japanese) and native speakers (American). For this, they prepared four sets with nine cards each. Among the nine cards, one card had a description of a scenario such as-buying shoes from a shop and other eight cards gave different pragmatic options through interrogative (past tense modals), declarative and imperative sentences. The subjects were asked to arrange cards into an order according to the grasped politeness of each request in the context of that scenario (e.g., purchasing shoes from a shop). The result of the study showed that there was a corresponding link between the native speaker and ESL learners' judgement of politeness in the requests and it was also found that some ESL learners perceive different ranks within the request utterances. Similar research on judgements of politeness in requests between non-native speakers (Japanese)

of English and native speakers (American) of English was conducted by Tanaka and Kawade (1982). They also employed cards containing request utterances from interrogative, declarative and imperative sentences. The difference from Carrell and Konneker's study was that here cards were twelve in numbers. Again, like the previous study, participants were asked to put cards in order of perceived politeness. The result of this study also declared the same findings that there is no significant difference between ESL learners' and native speakers' judgment of politeness in request utterances.

In 1990, Kitao worked on requests in a rank ordering sentences according to the politeness through a questionnaire format instead of cards. He compared the perception of request between native speakers (American) and ESL learners (Japanese). He gave ten utterances to his students ranging from very rude to very polite. They were asked to scale the appropriateness of this ordering. The results showed that there is a correlation between American native speakers and Japanese ESL learners' perception of politeness.

Blum-Kulka (1991) presented a model for interlanguage pragmatics through conducting a research on English and Hebrew immigrant subjects. He took request as the speech act to be examined and discussed the level of proficiency transfer from L1, perception of target language norms, length of stay in the target community. Four categories were given for linguistic encoding as against situational parameters and social meanings which were as follows:

- Strategy types: direct, conventionally indirect, hints.
- Perspective: hearer dominant, speaker dominant, hearer and speaker dominant, impersonal.
- Internal modifications: down graders, hedges, up graders.
- External modifications: grounders, cost minimizers, disarmers

He found that second language learners did not identify with the norms of L2.

Cohen and Olshtain (1993) conducted an empirical study on fifteen subjects who were asked to role-play with native speakers on the situation of

two apologies, two complaints and two requests. Their performances were video-taped and played back. They were asked to choose fixed and probing questions according to the factors relating to the responses of those speech acts situation. Then they analyzed these verbal protocols regarding to processing strategies in performing speech acts and it was found that second language learners gave general assessment of the speech acts without planning grammatical structures and pronunciation.

Ellis (1992) conducted a study on two ESL learners: a ten years old Portuguese speaker and an eleven years old Punjabi speaker for this empirical study. He audio-taped one hundred eight requests over sixteen months for two Portuguese speakers and three hundred two requests over twenty one months for Punjabi speakers. It was resulted that both respondents were unable to response all types of speech acts according to the appropriate social context. Ellis produced pedagogical implications that ESL classroom lacked the teaching of speech acts of different social contexts.

Takashashi (1996) attempted to find out the transfer of five Japanese in direct requests strategies in English. This empirical study was conducted on one forty two Japanese students. Two levels (low and high proficiency) of the subjects were made through a reading comprehension test then the data was collected on request situations. Their low and high degrees of imposition were also examined. The results showed that Japanese requests strategies were transferred in L2 but there was no balance in functional relation between the L1 and L2. It was also found that the perception of transfer relied on the learners' L2 proficiency. Takashashi emphasized the explicit teaching of appropriate pragmatics in ESL classroom.

One more study on the perception of request by ESL learners was done by Francis (1997). This study was set in administrative office, private office and ESL classroom and nine levels of ESL proficiency were analyzed. It was found that ESL learners used direct request strategy until their level of proficiency improved as elementary students applied twelve percent

conventionally indirect request strategies while intermediate students used twenty four percent. Locastro also researched request in seventeen Senior High Secondary EFL text-books (lacking in politeness markers). Japanese were less polite in their requesting in English.

Rinnert (1999) made a more study (on requests) on one hundred three Japanese speakers and ninety five native speakers of English. The subjects were asked to response on six request situations through three ratings of appropriateness in responses from a series of responses which were also given with request situations. It was found that respondents of both languages used formal and indirect forms (in appropriate) with higher status listeners. Japanese speakers rated formal forms highly appropriate with close interlocutors. They were seemed to be using questioning for request as: for ability (could you...?), willingness (would you mind...?); possibility (can/could I...?), willingness and possibility formulas for requesting were found acceptable in L2 but desire (I would like you.) was inappropriate in L2 context. Thus the investigator suggested that in ESL pedagogy, the level of awareness relating to similarities and differences between two languages and cultures should be developed.

A more recent empirical study by Cook and Liddicoat (2002) also compared the proficiency level of second language learners (two groups: high level and low level proficiency level) with English (Australian) speakers on the basis of their interpretation of requests. They employed multiple-choice questions with descriptions of situation with pragmatic options based on direct, conventionally indirect and non-conventionally indirect requests. They also analyzed the results through a statistical method. It was revealed that there was a potential difference in conventionally indirect and non-conventionally indirect requests between native speakers and ESL learners of both levels as native speakers frequently acquired the correct meaning of requests in comparison to the learners. It was also revealed that high proficiency level learners interpreted direct request in a similar way as native speakers interpreted it, whereas low proficiency level students showed a significant

difference in interpreting direct requests correctly in relation to native speakers. The results also concluded that high proficiency level students correctly acquire the meaning of conventionally and non-conventionally indirect requests with higher frequency than the low proficiency level students. Thus, the results of this study suggested that direct requests should be the first request strategy so that lower proficiency level learners may also learn these requests in ascending order from direct request to indirect request.

A more recent research on request was reported by Kobayashi and Rinnert (2003). They examined the perception of request strategies by high and low level proficiency students and they found that some factors were easily transferable from L1 and negative transfer of request strategies could not be neglected. As Japanese students used *want*-statement for polite request because it was their perception that it was polite form of requesting. So they suggested that in EFL classroom, the differences and similarities between two languages should be taught.

All above studies have confirmed that in ESL pedagogy, the teaching of requests strategies and similarities and differences between L1 and L2 is necessary to avoid misunderstandings across cultures.

## **Research on Thanks**

The researcher has tried to report some studies on thanks as the following:

Coulmas (1981) focused on materials of thanks and apology from European language and Japanese language. He described both speech acts function of indebtedness: thank is used for gratitude and apology is used for regret. He stressed the need of learning of both speech acts with their social use as in Japanese culture, thank is associated with the feeling of indebtedness and guilt because Japanese consider favours which they have received from the giver as a trouble rather than pleasing aspect. Japanese culture differ in expressing feelings of responsibilities, indebtedness and obligations from

European cultures where thank is associated with a pleasing feeling of gratitude. The same evidences come from Eisenstein and Bodman (1995) and Ide (1998). They were of the view that Japanese learners of English did not perform acceptable use of pragmatics especially of thanks. Ide (1998) named 'sorry for your kindness' for this speech act (thanks) in perspective of Japanese cultural norms of the perception and offering thanks. In Japan, the speech act of thanking functions of indebtedness. Japanese culture was called debt sensitive society in this paper. Due to their debt and guilt sense, Japanese students used inappropriate thanks. So the need of explicit teaching was emphasized.

Another research was done by Miyake (1994) on the similar issue that ESL learners of Japan used gratitude forms with apologetic forms when the interlocutor was older in age or in formal situations, they offered thanks apologetically or both (thanks and apologies) were considered as a part of apology. This contrastive pragmatic study was conducted on one hundred one English speakers and one hundred twenty two Japanese speakers. They were given thirty six situations having elicited expressions of gratitude apologies. It was also reported that Japanese learners of ESL tended to use more apologies forms than native speakers of English (British).

Hinkel (1994) conducted an empirical study on two hundred thirty three graduate and undergraduate Japanese learners of ESL to examine their offering of thanks with respect to native speaker norms. These ESL learners were kept in L2 country over one to five years and it was found that Japanese ESL learners performed better after staying in the target country. At the time of completing their period of five years, they reached near the level of native speakers because they developed their awareness of pragmatic use of thanks and other speech acts through explicit teaching in the classroom and through observing the offering of speech acts by native speakers in different situations. Thus, Hinkel emphasized the teaching of pragmatics in ESL classroom so that ESL learners could develop their awareness of using different speech acts in different situations.

Again all these studies have stressed the need of explicit teaching of offering thanks in L2 context. Thus, it can be assumed in the light of the above observations that the use of thanks and other speech acts demand proper teaching in ESL classroom because the use of pragmatics can not be acquired accidentally and L2 cultural factors can not be avoided.

### **Research on Apologies**

There are a lot of contrastive studies on apologies and it is too difficult to report all those studies. Hence, the researcher has attempted to report some significant research in the field of pragmatics.

Olshtain and Blum-Kulka (1985) investigated judgement of appropriacy in requests and apologies among native Hebrew speakers and learners of Hebrew (three groups). Each group was set according to the time of stay in Israel. The period of their stay in Israel varied from two to ten years. Eight situations described and followed by six apologies and requests were given to each of the subjects. Through this instrument, the students were asked to give ratings according to the appropriacy of the apologies and requests. The ratings were measured by three options: 1= appropriate, 2= more or less appropriate and 3= not appropriate in a specific context. The results showed that the selection of speech acts made by learners, who had lived more than ten years in the second language environment, was similar to native speakers' selection; whereas the choice of appropriateness in speech acts by the learners who had stayed less than two years, differed from native speakers' selection of options.

Garcia (1989) made an empirical research on ten Venezuelans to compare the requesting and disagreeing strategies. The participants role-played in pragmatic situations. It was resulted that native speakers of English used non-confrontated stylistic devices in disagreeing and impersonal stylistic devices in requesting while non-native speakers of English used



confrontational stylistic devices in disagreeing and personal stylistic devices in requesting.

Holmes (1990) investigated the syntactic, semantic and socio-linguistic patterns and he examined the affective and referential meaning relating the rank of the guilt associated features with the apology through collecting a corpus data of one hundred eighty three apologies in New Zealand English. The results showed that features of apology varied according to the weight of offense.

Kumagai (1993) compared the strategies of the features of apology on the basis cultural meaning. She took Japanese and Americans. The data was remedial interaction of apologies which was collected from the scripts of forty Japanese TV dramas and four Japanese dramas and ninety American films. It was found that similar strategies in performing the act of apology did function differently in Japanese and American interactions as Japanese stressed to restore the relationship whereas American speakers believed in solving the problem, Japanese speakers were kind, empathetic and self threatening while American speakers were expressive, rational and self supportive.

An important study on pragmatic transfer from L1 (Japanese) to L2 (English) was conducted by Maeshiba et al. (1996). The participants were thirty Japanese ESL intermediate learners, thirty native speakers of English (undergraduate) and thirty native speakers of Japanese (undergraduate and graduate) were given dialogue writing in English and Japanese. They were asked to choose appropriate ranks of twenty contexts on a five scale. It was resulted that the effects of positive transfer were more pervasive than negative transfer in the responses of apology. The patterns of transfer differed according to the status of ESL learners as learners of intermediate level transferred their L1 apologies forms while advanced learners of ESL made less transfer of their behaviour four times than the students of intermediate. So, they pointed out that many cultural factors go with pragmatic transfer as their attitude towards the target culture, their exposure in L2 context and their social power.

Further Nakai (1999) worked on contrastive pragmatics- the use of apology. Again the participants were forty three Japanese ESL learners of high school who responded in speech act situations. The results showed that Japanese learners of ESL were acquainted with these expressions: 'I'm sorry', 'excuse me' but they were unaware the right use of these expressions in the proper context or situation. That is the reason that native speakers of English feel difficulty in the understanding of Japanese apologetic expressions in appropriate situations. In the end, he implied that in ESL pedagogy, the teaching of the use of apology in appropriate situations should be taught.

Again the emphasis is given on the teaching of pragmatics (apology) in ESL classroom for understanding and responding in varied L2 society and culture.

### **Research on Greetings and Leave-takings**

There are a few works on the speech acts of greetings and leave-takings.

Reisman (1974) pointed the differences between the speakers of West Indies and the speakers of United States that the former greet in every social encounter while the latter greet often and less. Sullivan (1979) took samples from seven text books and compared these samples from the samples of spontaneous speech which were collected from beauty parlours, elevators, airports, TV and office. The participants were of eighteen to forty five in their ages. Sullivan found that 67% women greeted 'hi' and 37% men greeted 'hi' whereas in ESL text books 'how are you?' was the most common greeting. For parting in ESL textbooks, saying 'good bye' was the common while in speech, the subjects generally said 'nice to meet you' and 'bye'.

Placencia (1997) focused on address forms and functions of telephonic conversation in Ecuador (Spain). Age, sex, social distance, social power and relationship etc. were the factors that serve and govern the use of several greeting forms, types and functions of telephonic conversation. To examine

types and forms of speech, the investigator collected a corpus of seventy eight telephonic conversations among the six household members. It was resulted that these Spanish household members used various forms and types that included names (first name, full name, and surname), titles, name substitutes and address pronouns. The address forms and greetings occurred in the beginning of the conversation.

Almost every research has claimed that in ESL pedagogy, the teaching of speech acts is necessary.

### **Research on Other Speech Acts**

Here, a few studies on some other speech acts have been reported.

Hinkel (1997) examined appropriateness in advice comments, which were mentioned in multiple-choice questionnaires with a situation (e.g., giving advice to a fellow student on where to take their car for repair). The participants had to choose the appropriate advice comment out of three choices (direct, hedged and indirect). The findings showed that there was a significant difference in the perceived appropriateness in advice comments between American native speakers and Japanese ESL learners. According to her study, ESL learners select direct and hedged choices while native speakers choose indirect comments to be appropriate.

Matsumura (2003) examined the perception of advice appropriateness among Japanese learners of English. For this study the data was collected three times at the intervals of three months in a second language context. Firstly, the data was collected when the learners had just left Japan; secondly the data was collected after learners' stay of one month in Canada; and thirdly the data was collected when they had completed four months in the L2 environment of Canada. They were given twelve advice situations and were asked to choose the appropriate one, from four choices for each situation. Analyzing the data through a statistical method, the results showed that the exposure in the environment affects second language learners' pragmatic development. The

students who had stayed for four months, performed better than the students who had stayed for one month and those who had just arrived.

Ming-Chung Yu (2005) investigated the socio-linguistic characteristics of a specific speech act- 'paying compliment' through comparing ESL (Chinese) learners' and native (American) speakers' performances. The data was collected through classroom observation. It was found that Chinese learners were less competent in performing the speech acts than the native speakers. They employed their L1 strategies in performing the speech acts because they were not aware about the social norms of the American culture. The researcher suggests that there is a need to teach socio cultural rules of the target language and it is claimed that the learners who are aware about the socio cultural rules of the native language do better.

The above studies demonstrate that there are two factors, which affects the development of speech acts: knowledge of L2 culture and time of learning of L2 speech acts in their context.

## **Significance of the Study**

Most of the earlier studies on speech acts have concentrated on cross-cultural transfer such as the subjects' attitude, style (formal/informal) and other psychological factors. Admittedly, socio-cultural transfer constitutes one of the most significant aspects in the study of speech acts, which is the focus of pragmatics. The researcher however, has introduced here the additional dimensions of lexical and syntactic transfer apart from socio-cultural transfer, on the basis of the view that lexical and syntactic transfer may to some extent interact with socio-cultural transfer and throw light on it for a better understanding of the construct. Apart from being of some use of transfer of speech acts, the study might also provide pedagogical insights for the teaching of speech acts in the ESL classroom.

## **Aim of the Study**

Investigating the role of transfer in the speech acts of ESL learners with Hindi/Urdu linguistic backgrounds, through a qualitative case study, the researcher has tried to find answers to the following questions:

1. Does transfer have a role in the speech acts of Hindi/Urdu speaking learners of ESL?
2. If transfer does have a role, what are the positive and negative effects on the performances of ESL learners?
3. Should speech acts be made the focus of teaching in ESL pedagogy?

## **Subjects**

The subjects were undergraduate students of Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh which is a central university of India. Each student had an intermediate level of linguistic competence in English as a second language. They were from different learning streams: Arts, Science, Commerce, Theology, Computer Science and Business Administration. They were either of 1<sup>st</sup> year, 2<sup>nd</sup> year or 3<sup>rd</sup> year of graduation (B.A., B.Sc., B.Com, B.C.A., etc.). Fifteen students were taken for dialogue writing tasks on five speech acts (request, thank, apology, greeting and leave-taking) and fifteen students were also taken for audio taped interviews on the same five speech acts (request, thank, apology, greeting and leave-taking). Thus, the total number of subjects was thirty. These students were of seventeen to twenty years old in their age. Although this group came from different regional and educational backgrounds making a heterogeneous environment of the ESL classroom, yet all shared more or less a similar level of English language competence, having a minimum of thirteen years of English language learning before their present

year of university study. Their mother tongue was either Hindi or Urdu which is regarded as a single language named Hindustani because both languages have the same grammatical structure to a large extent. These languages are different only in their lexicality; and the different lexical terms become obvious only in formal styles. Both the languages can be considered two dialects of one language.

## **Instruments**

For collecting data, both writing and speaking tasks were given on five speech acts: 1) request 2) thanking 3) apology 4) greeting and 5) leave-taking. There were twenty speech act questions as each speech act had four situational questions: two questions in formal situations and two questions in informal situations. In these tasks the students were asked to produce appropriate speech acts according to the given situations.

### **Writing Task**

For the dialogue writing task, fifteen sets were prepared. Each set contained five sheets with five speech act situations and each sheet had four situational questions: two in informal situations and two in formal situations as the following:

#### ***I. Written Requests***

##### **A. Informal situations:**

How will you make a request in writing:

1. to a friend for accompany you on an educational tour?
2. to your parents for allowing you to go on a tour?

##### **B. Formal situations:**

How will you make a request in writing:

1. to your provost for concession in hostel fee?

2. to a publisher for some text books?

## **II. *Written Thanks***

### **A. Informal situations:**

How would you express your thanks in writing:

1. to a friend for a book which he/she lent to you, and which has changed your life?
2. to your neighbour who looked after your mother in your absence?

### **B. Formal situations:**

How would you express your thanks in writing:

1. to your teacher for his/her guidance in your studies?
2. to your provost for fee concession?

## **III. *Written Apologies***

### **A. Informal situations:**

How will you apologize in writing:

1. to your friend when you have lost his/her book which he/she lent to you?
2. to your mother when you have misbehaved with her?

### **B. Formal situations:**

How will you apologize in writing:

1. to your proctor after having beaten another student?
2. to the publisher of a book for not having made the payment on time?

## **IV. *Written Greetings***

### **A. Informal situations:**

How would you write your greetings:

1. in a letter to your sister?
2. in a letter to your friend?

### **B. Formal situations:**

How would you write your greetings:

1. in a letter to your provost?

2. in a letter to the editor of a newspaper?

### ***V. Written Leave-takings***

#### **A. Informal situations:**

How would you take leave:

1. in a letter to your friend?
2. in a letter to your father?

#### **B. Formal situations:**

How would you take leave:

1. in a letter to your teacher?
2. in a letter to the manager of a company?

### **Speaking Task**

For the speaking task, the researcher took audio-taped interviews of fifteen students on the basis of the questionnaire prepared on the above five speech acts.

### ***I. Spoken Requests***

#### **A. Informal situations:**

How would you ask:

1. your friend to lend you his/her pen?
2. your parents for money for going on a college tour?

#### **B. Formal situations:**

How would you request:

1. your teacher for reference materials on a topic?
2. a stranger at the railway station for giving you directions to reach the university?

### ***II. Spoken Thanks***

#### **A. Informal situations:**

How will you say thanks:

1. to a friend for lending you money for paying your fees?



2. to your parents on phone who sent you money for college tour?

**B. Formal situations:**

How would you say your thanks:

1. to your teacher for his/her guidance in your studies?
2. to a stranger for saving you from an accident?

**III. Spoken Apologies**

**A. Informal situations:**

How would you apologize:

1. to a friend for not being able to attend his/her birthday party?
2. to your mother for misbehaving with her?

**B. Formal situations:**

How would you apologize:

1. to your teacher for being late for the class?
2. to your warden for violating a rule of the hostel?

**IV. Spoken Greetings**

**A. Informal situations:**

How would you greet:

1. your friend when you meet him in the morning?
2. your parents after reaching home from the hostel?

**B. Formal situations:**

What do you say in greeting:

1. to your teacher before the class?
2. to a stranger in a train to whom you want to talk?

**V. Spoken Leave-takings**

**A. Informal situations:**

How will you say good bye:

1. to a friend after the class?
2. to your parents when you are leaving home?

**B. Formal situations:**

How will you say good bye:

1. to your warden when vacating the hostel?
2. to your teacher after the class?

Before the interview, the students were told to respond on twenty situational questions of request, thank, apology, greeting and leave-taking.

**Procedure**

For collecting written data, the researcher went to different faculties (arts, science, social-science, commerce, theology, management, law and medicine) of Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh where she engaged the graduate students. The students were told that these classes would be fruitful for their writing and speaking skills. Twenty speech act situational questions were given on the sheets but before distributing the sheets, the researcher told about the speech acts which were in the sets then she read aloud the questions. Each student was asked to complete all the answers to the twenty questions.

For spoken speech acts, the researcher audio taped interviews of undergraduate students. For it, she went to the Maulana Azad Library and the Coaching Guidance Centre of A.M.U., Aligarh because here, the students of each faculty and department come for their studies. Before audio-taped interviews, the researcher told each individual student to respond on different twenty situational questions of speech acts then she took audio-taped interviews individually of fifteen students. It was the good luck of the researcher that the students participated keenly in dialogue writings and interviews. After collecting the data, she transcribed the audio-recorded interviews for observing the responses of students. She had recorded interviews back up in audio cassettes. She observed the transfer of deviant forms and

acceptable forms of speech acts from their L1 to L2 dialogue writings and interviews.

## **The Study of the Speech Act of Requests**

Request is a speech act which functions as an imposition on the freedom of the receiver, sometimes demanding and sometimes intrusive. Through a request, the speaker/writer imposes an action on the receiver or infringes on the freedom of the receiver. "The recipient may feel that the request is an intrusion on his/her freedom of action or even a power play. As for the requester, s/he may hesitate to make requests for fear of exposing a need or out of fear of possibly making the recipient lose face" (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989: 11). But the requester can minimize the degree of imposition of a request through using some request strategies. The researcher has analyzed request strategies based on Blum-Kulka, et al.'s (1984 and 1989) typology which are as the following:

### **Direct Strategies**

In a direct strategy, the requester makes a request directly in declarative or imperative mood. It is more explicit and it intrudes upon the freedom of the recipient. For example,

Clean up the kitchen.

I am asking you to clean up the kitchen.

I would like to ask you to clean the kitchen.

You will have to clean up the kitchen.

Direct strategies are clearer and the recipient does not have the burden of interpreting the intention of the requester, they are shorter (mostly imperative) in length than indirect strategies (mostly interrogative). However, these strategies are considered less polite.

### **Conventionally Indirect Strategies**

The requester can minimize the compelling force of a request through indirect strategies. These strategies are more polite and most of cultures accept them. Conventionally indirect strategies depend on the convention of the language in which they occur according to the relevant context. These strategies mostly occur in the interrogative mood (modal forms). For example,

Could you clean up the kitchen, please?

Would you like to close the door?

### **Non-conventionally Indirect Strategies**

These request strategies refer to the context partially. Basically, these indirect strategies are only hints of a request to the receiver, and the interpretation of which depends on the context. It totally depends on the context. Through this strategy, the requester can minimize the imposition on the hearer. For example,

You have left the kitchen in a right mess.

It is so cold. (Looking at the window as a hint to get it closed.)

### **Request Perspectives**

Requests generally give reference to the requester, the receiver of the request or the action to be performed. Requests can be manipulated with the selection of a suitable perspective.

#### **Hearer-oriented**

Here, the requester includes the reference of hearer. He/she gives emphasis on the role of the hearer. For example,

Could you clean up the kitchen, please?

#### **Speaker-oriented**

In this perspective, the requester focuses on the role of himself as requester. The speaker-oriented requests are considered more polite because here, there is less stress on the role of the hearer. For example,

Can I go to market?

### **Speaker- and Hearer-oriented**

It includes the role of both the speaker and hearer. For example,

So, could we tidy up the kitchen soon?

### **Impersonal**

It does not include a direct reference to either the hearer or the speaker. For example,

So, it might not be a bad idea to get it cleaned up.

### **Request Downgraders/Upgraders**

The compelling force of a request can be made less through downgraders which attempts to downgrade the position of the requester. Request in negative might indicate being pessimistic regarding the result of the request or through the use of interrogative and modal forms, the requester might show him/herself as hesitant about making the request. For example,

Could you do the cleaning up?

Could you remind me later...?

On the other hand, the requester can increase the imposition of a request through upgrading his/her role. Request upgraders may aggravate the demand. For example,

Close the door.

You still have not closed the door.

### **Supportive Moves**

Supportive moves help in interpreting the context of the main act of the request. They come either before or after the head act, in other words, they also help to complete the request. For example,

May I take your help? My first term exam is near.

Are you going in the direction of town? And if so, is it possible for me to join you?

### List of Possible L2 Request Forms

A list of possible L2 request forms of ready references has been provided on the basis of the following four native speakers:

1. Grant Taylor's '*English Conversation Practice*' (1975) .
2. Kate Schrago-Lorden's '*English for Hotel Staff*' (1979).
3. Jeremy Harmer and John Arnold's '*Advanced Speaking Skills*' (1978).
4. J. A. Rimmer and J. Scott's '*English for Commercial Practice*' (1983).

S. N.	Grant Taylor	Kate Schrago-Lorden	Jeremy Harmer and John Arnold	J. A. Rimmer and J. Scott
1.	Can I help you?	May I help you?	Can I help you?	May I help you?
2.	I need about ten dollars?	Could you fill in this form, please?	Do you mind if I ask you one or two questions?	Can you work for me?
3.	Would you please get me a bag of sugar?	Would you like a room with bath or shower?	Would you all like to come out for a drink?	Which colour would you like?
4.	Please write down John's address.	You will have to register individually, please.	Could I let you know in a few minutes?	Shall I get a copy of the invoice?
5.	Press the starter button.	Please book a room for two days.	May I introduce Mr. Donald Cromer?	Will you ask him to telephone me, please?
6.	Could/can you tell me where the library is?	Why don't you have a seat?	Let's have an exhibition about old machines...	I want to buy a typewriter, please.
7.		Here's your key card and your key.	Have you got anything fixed up for this evening Carol?	Do you want to ask...?
8.		What's your address, please?		I would like to take a car.
9.		I'll need a double room.		
10.		I would like to book a room.		
11.		Did you have breakfast this morning?		

Table 6

## List of Possible L1 Request Forms

A corresponding list of possible L1 forms of requests has also been provided by the researcher on the basis of her own knowledge of Hindi/Urdu of which, she is a native speaker herself.

S. N.	Own Observation
1.	आपसे सविनय निवेदन है।
2.	आपसे विनती करता हूँ।
3.	क्या आप मुझे एक पेन देंगे?
4.	क्या मैं आपका पेन ले सकता हूँ?
5.	कृपया अपना पेन दे दीजिए।
6.	मैं आपका पेन ले लूँ?
7.	मुझे आपका पेन चाहिए।
8.	मुझे अपना पेन दे दीजिए।
9.	बराय मेहरबानी।
10.	आपको तकलीफ तो होगी मगर जरा ...।
11.	मैं आपका आभारी रहूँगा यदि आप मुझे एक पेन देंगे।

Table 7

## Analysis and Discussion

### Most Frequent Forms

Most ESL learners in the study have used 'Please' and 'Kindly' most frequently in making the requests. Learners of ESL use more declarative forms in requests in contrast to English speakers' use of interrogative forms. Hindi/Urdu speakers perform request strategies, e.g., कृपया अपना पेन दे दीजिए, मुझे आपका पेन चाहिए and so on (see table 7) rather than क्या आप मुझे एक पेन देंगे?

in Hindi/Urdu. They want to make their requests clear and transparent so that the receiver can understand without the burden of interpreting. In Indian culture, it is common to make a request in a direct manner. While in the English culture, the requester makes an indirect request, e.g.,

May I help you?

Could you fill in this form, please?

Would you please get me a bag of sugar? (see table 6)

In the English culture or community, the use of 'Please' occurs mostly in informal relationships when the requesters can impose their request on the recipient's power. But Hindi/Urdu speaking ESL students impose their request on the hearer in both the situations: formal and informal. Thus, the transfer of their cultural system occurs in their L2 performance of making requests and this transfer sometimes becomes absurd. For example, when ESL learners impose their request on their teacher saying in English,

Please give me a pen.

English listeners may perceive this request as impolite thinking that the speaker is not aware about the etiquettes of speaking, as he is imposing an action on the teacher without considering his/her willingness and desire. This study also shows that ESL learners avoid the full range of polite forms which require grammatical correctness. Grammar often poses problems so less able ESL students use these simpler forms, e.g.,

Let me go.

Let us go.

The requests may be interpreted as deviant forms because here, politeness of request has been lost and the request receiver will see them only as an imposition of an action upon him/her. In India, if a requester makes a request saying कृपया अपना पेन दे दीजिए. It will be considered a very polite and formal request because the politeness depends on certain words such as, कृपया, बराय मेहरबानी and so on, while in English culture, the view of politeness differs and



depends on the use of modal forms. In other words, polite requests in informal situation are usually indirect:

Could/can you tell me where the library is?

Would you all like to come out for a drink?

May I introduce Mr. Donald Cromer? (see table 6)

Though ESL learners remain very polite in writing, e.g., ‘\*I request you for going on an educational tour’, ‘I shall be highly grateful to you if you give me concession in hostel fees’, which are direct translations of ‘आपसे विनती करता हूँ।’ and ‘मैं आपका आभारी रहूंगा यदि आप मुझे एक पेन देंगे।’ It should be noted that in writing, ESL students of the study tend to be more polite and formal than native users of English. On the contrary, they appear to be less polite, hesitant and cautious in making requests in speech. The latter may be the result of lack of adequate competence in English, but also might be a case of transfer of L1 norms.

### Analysis of Elicited Requests in Interviews

(Blum-Kulka et al.,

1989)

S.N.	Strategy Type		Total No.	Percentage
1.	Directness	Direct	30	15.70%
		Conventionally indirect	27	14.13%
		Non-conventionally indirect	03	01.57%
2.	Perspective	Hearer dominant	47	24.60%
		Speaker dominant	13	06.80%
		Hearer speaker dominant	0	0%
		Impersonal	0	0%
3.	Face features	Up graders	07	3.66%
		Down graders	53	27.74%
4.	Supportive moves		11	05.75%
5.	Total no. of all strategy types		191	100%

Table 8

**Analysis of Elicited Requests in Dialogue Writings**  
(Blum-Kulka et al.,  
1989)

S.N.	Strategy Type		Total No.	Percentage
1.	Directness	Direct	54	27.41%
		Conventionally indirect	03	01.52%
		Non-conventionally indirect	03	01.52%
2.	Perspective	Hearer dominant	39	19.76%
		Speaker dominant	11	05.58%
		Hearer speaker dominant	10	05.07%
		Impersonal	0	0%
3.	Face features	Up graders	10	05.07%
		Down graders	50	25.38%
4.	Supportive moves		17	08.62%
5.	Total no. of all strategy types		197	100%

**Table 9**

### **Directness**

As discussed, the most frequent forms used by ESL learners of A.M.U. are 'Please', 'Kindly', and 'I request you' which are direct request strategies. Hindi/Urdu speaking language allows for more directness in requests than English. For example, Hindi/Urdu speaking learners select stronger modal forms of requests 'Can you give me a pen?' rather than 'May you give me your pen?' whereas English native speakers use weaker modal forms, e.g., 'Could I let you know in a few minutes?' and 'May I introduce Mr. Donald Cromer?' (see table 6).

In the study, mostly ESL learners of Hindu/Urdu prefer to use declarative sentences for request because they transfer their L1 norm of using declarative sentences. It may be also the reason that they lack proper command on the language. On the other hand, English native speakers use, mostly, interrogative forms. In the study, ESL learners less often use non-conventionally indirect strategies because their use demands a proper understanding of the context. Even conventionally indirect strategies such as, 'Can you tell me the way to university?', 'May I take your pen?', 'Will you

please lend me your pen?’ and ‘Would you provide me some reference material?’ were used very frequently. It appears to be that sometimes ESL learners use the correct request strategy without being aware of it, that is, they do not apply different request strategies in all situational variants. Thus, both the situational and cultural patterns of L1 affect the use of direct strategies. To conclude, the teaching of request speech acts becomes necessary to enable the learners to use appropriate requests according to the setting.

### **Speaker-oriented/Hearer-oriented**

The results show that most ESL learners have used hearer dominant perspective. They have imposed the action on the hearer so they usually include the reference of the receiver of request, e.g.,

Could you provide the reference materials, sir?

Can you give me your pen, please?

Would you provide me some reference material?

Here, again it may be the case of L1 transfer because in Hindi/Urdu, speakers use hearer dominant as well as speaker dominant perspectives. While in English, speakers mostly employ speaker dominant perspective because it provides a place for the avoidance of imposition on the hearer. In the university, Hindi/Urdu speakers learning English transfer their L1 hearer dominant perspective frequently. Speaker-oriented perspective has been used less frequently and only in informal situations. There might be a reason behind it that in Indian culture, elders especially teachers (Guru) are associated with knowledge, perfection of ideas so speakers impose any activity on teachers in request form supposing that they have no difficulty in solving any problem or giving their ideas to the students while in informal situation, ESL learners have often made speaker-dominant requests because of the concept that the students of similar group may be equivalent to them.

## Face Features

Learners have mostly applied downgrading face feature, that is, they downgrade themselves. It appears to be that they have been hesitant in making request. Usually in Indian culture, it is a convention that the speakers want to decrease the imposition on the hearer which might be face threatening. Learners of English in the present research have sometimes employed upgrading face features too. But these forms are too rare, e.g.,

Papa, I need money for college tour.

Friend, I am taking your book.

It might be the cause that ESL learners in the study want to avoid modal forms because these grammatical forms create some problems for those who have lack of knowledge and command on language, so they have used simpler and shorter forms. Secondly, the use of upgrading face features might be due to the transfer of Indian social norm of directness. Speakers in Indian culture generally make a request by saying in Hindi/Urdu: मुझे आपका पेन चाहिए and मुझे अपना पेन दे दीजिए।

## Supportive Moves

In the study, Hindi/Urdu speaking ESL learners seldom use supportive moves. They want to avoid their use, it might be the reason that they lack possible knowledge of language. For example,

May I take your help? My first term exam is near.

Only able students make use of supportive moves while in Hindi/Urdu, supportive moves are used frequently.

It is obvious that Hindi/Urdu speaking learners transfer their L1 cultural norms to L2 in request strategies, and their L1 request strategies interfere with their L2 discourse. So, there should be explicit teaching of request speech acts in ESL pedagogy.

## **The Study of the Speech Act of Thanks**

Thanking is a speech act which functions to express gratitude, compliment and a signal of the conclusion of a conversation. The researcher has analyzed thank strategies based on Eisenstein and Bodman's (1986) typology which is as the following:

### **Complimenting**

The receiver of gratitude gives a compliment on the received favour/gift or compliments the person from whom he/she has received the favour/gift. For example,

Thank you. You are wonderful.

### **Expressing Affection**

The receiver of a favour sometimes expresses affection for the benefactor. For example,

I really appreciate this. You are a sweetheart.

### **Promising to Repay**

When the receiver thinks of the gravity of indebttness or considers it as a debt and promises to repay the indebttness, he/she uses this strategy. For example,

I do not know how to thank you. I shall pay you back as soon as I can.

### **Expressing Surprise and Delight**

The receiver is surprised and delighted for the expected and unexpected favour/gift and he/she expresses surprise and delight in certain words such as, 'Wow!' 'Marvellous!' 'Wonderful!' and so forth. For example,

Wow! This shirt is really beautiful.

### **Expressing a Lack of Necessity**

When the speaker considers the gravity and depth of gratitude but expresses a lack of necessity for the gift/favour. For example,

I do not know how to thank you. You did not have to do this for me.

### **Exaggerating the Favour**

The speaker exaggerates and focuses on the depth of gratitude in words. For example,

I really appreciate this. You are a life saver.

## List of Possible L2 Thank Forms

A list of possible L2 thanks has been provided on the basis of the references of the following four native speakers:

1. Grant Taylor's '*English Conversation Practice*' (1975) .
2. Kate Schrago-Lorden's '*English for Hotel Staff*' (1979).
3. Jeremy Harmer and John Arnold's '*Advanced Speaking Skills*' (1978).
4. Eisenstein and Bodman (1986). 'I very appreciate': Expressions of gratitude by native and non-native speakers. *Applied Linguistics*, 7: 167-185.

S. N.	Eisenstein and Bodman	Grant Taylor	Kate Schrage- Lorden	Jeremy Harmer and John Arnold
1.	Thank you. You're wonderful.	Thanks. Someone is already waiting on me.	Thanks.	Yes, that would be marvellous.Thanks.
2.	I really appreciate this. You're a sweetheart.	It is nice of you to help us this way.	Okay/fine, thank you.	Thank you for the invitation Donald but I've got to get home to the wife.
3.	I can't thank you enough. This is just what I wanted. Blue is my favourite colour.	Thanks very much/a lot.	Thank you.	It's all right, thanks.
4.	I don't know how to thank you. I'll pay you back as soon as I can.	Thanks. I see it.	Thanks anyway.	Thank you.
5.	Oh, wow! Thank you.	Thank you very much.	Oh, yes! Thank you.	
6.	I don't know how to thank you. You didn't have to do this for me.	Thank you.		
7.	I really appreciate you. You're lifesaver.			

Table 10

## List of Possible L1 Thank Forms

A corresponding list of possible L1 forms of thanks has also been provided by the researcher on the basis of her own knowledge of Hindi/Urdu of which, she is a native speaker herself.

S. N.	Own Observation
1.	शुक्रिया
2.	धन्यवाद
3.	थेक्यू
4.	थेक्स
5.	आप की बहुत मेहरबानी हुई।
6.	मैं आपका बहुत शुक्रगुजार हूँ।
7.	मैं आपका एहसानमंद हूँ।
8.	आपका आभारी हूँ।
9.	आपका शुक्रिया होगा।

Table 11

## Analysis and Discussion

There are phrases which precede or follow an expression of gratitude and these perform different functions. The above-mentioned typology is classified on the basis of these functions and discussed regarding to the present study:

### Most Frequent Forms

Hindi/Urdu speaking learners of ESL in the study use 'Thank you' most frequently. In their L1 also, 'Thank you' is a borrowed lexical item from English language. The learners use थेक्यू which they have easily transferred from L1 without any grammatical burden to their L2. 'Thank you' is a



translation of शुक्रिया and धन्यवाद. This form of thanks is acceptable both in L1 and L2 contexts. Secondly, they have often used 'I am thankful' which is an expression which seems to be deviant according to L2 usage. This expression has been employed in both types of responses: spoken and written. Native speakers would use 'I am highly obliged to you' or 'I am extremely grateful' to express the depth of gratitude.

### **Analysis of Elicited Thanks in Interviews**

(Based on Eisenstein and Bodman, 1986)

S.N.	Strategy Type	Total No.	Percentage
1.	Complimenting/Appreciation for the favour/gift	13	41.93%
2.	Expressing affection	11	35.48%
3.	Promising to repay	0	0%
4.	Expressing lack of necessity	0	0%
5.	Expression of surprise and delight	02	06.45%
6.	Exaggerating the favour	05	16.12%
7.	Total no. of all strategy types	31	100%

**Table 12**

### **Analysis of Elicited Thanks in Dialogue Writing**

(Based on Eisenstein and Bodman, 1986)

S.N.	Strategy Type	Total No.	Percentage
1.	Complimenting/Appreciation for the favour/gift	27	64.28%
2.	Expressing affection	09	21.42%
3.	Promising to repay	0	0%
4.	Expressing lack of necessity	01	02.38%
5.	Expression of surprise and delight	04	09.52%
6.	Exaggerating the favour	01	02.38%
7.	Total no. of all strategy types	42	100%

**Table 13**

### **Complimenting**

Generally, speakers/writers express their gratitude with a compliment when they are happy to get a favour or a gift from the other person, they appreciate it.

In the study, Hindi/Urdu speakers have often used compliments to appreciate the favour or the gift, e.g.,

\*I am so happy and excited for going on college tour and you have paid for me. Thank you.

### **Expressing Affection**

English speakers express their affection towards the giver of a favour, e.g.,

I really appreciate it. You are a sweetheart.

Learners of ESL, here, also sometimes express their affection mostly in informal situations like,

\*Papa, you are so sweet. You have allowed me for tour and sent me money.

### **Promising to Repay**

In Indian culture, it is not the tradition to promise to repay after getting a favour from the other person. Whereas, in English culture, speakers usually promise to repay for the gift/favour, e.g.,

I don't know how to thank you. I'll pay you back as soon as I can.

This thing will be unacceptable in Indian culture and will be included in bad manners. In Indian culture, people do not promise to repay verbally, though they might have it in their mind, and they accept a favour with humility. If they consider a favour as a debt, they do not express it.

### **Expressing a Lack of Necessity**

Through expressing a lack of necessity for a gift or a favour is common in Indian culture, but examples of this have not been found in the elicited data.

### **Expressing Surprise and Delight**

Expression of surprise and delight is a common way of thanking among Indians as among English speakers. However, examples of this study have not been found in the elicited data. The reason behind it might be that they are unable to use all strategy types due to their lack of command on English language.

### **Exaggerating the Favour**

The results show that ESL learners in the study exaggerate very seldom and they mostly say only 'Thank you' for paying thanks. Exaggerating the value of the favour or the gift is a common practice in both the cultures, but ESL learners have exaggerated the favour very seldom, the reason behind it might be that they want to avoid longer expressions of thanks.

### **The Study of the Speech Act of Apologies**

An apology is expressed for saying sorry or to explain the reason, why the offense happened or to make a repair for the damage and establish a good relationship, or to acknowledge the responsibility. The researcher has analyzed the apology strategies based on Cohen and Olshtain's (1981) typology.

### **An Expression of an Apology**

The offender express his apology in certain words such as, 'Sorry', 'Excuse', 'Forgive' or 'Apologize'. An expression of an apology can be with or without intensifier. Apology intensifiers are as, 'Really', 'Very', 'So', 'Extremely', 'Deeply' and so forth. For example,

I apologize. (without intensifier)

I am extremely sorry. (with intensifier)

### **Acknowledgement of Responsibility**

When the offender recognizes the cause of his offence and the offender accepts his fault. For example,

Sorry mom, I was being foolish at that time.

### **An Explanation**

In this strategy, the offender explains the reason of offence and it is indirect apology. For example,

Sorry sir, I woke up late.

### **An Offer of Repair**

The speaker wants to repay something for the loss resulting from his fault. For example,

Sorry my dear friend, by mistake I have lost your book but don't worry I will buy you a new one.

## A Promise of Non-recurrence

The offender commits or promises not to repeat the mistake further. It is situation specific strategy. For example,

Sorry mummy, yesterday I was upset that's why I shouted at you.  
I will not repeat it in future. Promise.

## List of Possible L2 Apology Forms

A list of possible L2 forms of apologies has been provided on the basis of ready references of the following four native speakers:

1. Grant Taylor's '*English Conversation Practice*' (1975) .
2. Kate Schrago-Lorden's '*English for Hotel Staff*' (1979).
3. Jeremy Harmer and John Arnold's '*Advanced Speaking Skills*' (1978).
4. Cohen and Olshtain (1981). Developing a measure of socio-cultural competence: The case of apology. *Language Learning*, 31, 1: 113-134.

S. N.	Cohen and Olshtain	Grant Taylor	Kate Schrago-Lorden	Jeremy Harmer and John Arnold
1.	I am really sorry.	I'm sorry, but I don't have any suggestions.	I'm terribly sorry.	Sorry for being late, darling, but there was this important meeting.
2.	It's my fault.	Sorry.	I'm sorry.	I'm sorry.
3.	The bus was late.	I beg your pardon.	It would not be possible, sorry.	On, not really. I think I've only broken one of your headlights. It really wasn't my fault...you see my foot slipped, and well I backed into your car.
4.	How can I make it up to you- why don't I buy lunch on Friday?	Sorry, I forgot to tell you she gave me your copy.		Well...uhm...I'm afraid I seem to have backed my car into yours...I'm really sorry.
5.		Excuse me.		Sorry, I'm not quite clear what you mean...
6.				Well, I'm awfully sorry but I don't think I'll be able to come after all.

Table 14

### **List of Possible L1 Apology Forms**

A corresponding list of possible L1 forms of apologies has also been provided by the researcher on the basis of her own knowledge of Hindi/Urdu of which, she is a native speaker herself.

S. N.	Own Observation
1.	माफी चाहता हूँ।
2.	मुझे बहुत अफसोस है।
3.	मैं बहुत शर्मिन्दा हूँ।
4.	ऐसा दुबारा नहीं होगा।
5.	बराय मेहरबानी मुझे माफ कीजिए।
6.	प्लीज मुझे माफ करिए।
7.	सॉरी।
8.	मुझसे गलती हो गयी। आइन्दा ऐसा नहीं होगा।
9.	श्रमा चाहता हूँ।

**Table 15**

### **Analysis and Discussion**

In this section, the apologies produced by Hindi/Urdu speakers have been contrastively examined in relation to L2 native forms. Cohen and Olshtain's (1981) typology of strategies used in apologies has been used here, which is discussed in the following points:

#### **Most Frequent Forms**

Hindi/Urdu speakers use apologies for saying that they are sorry or they explain reasons but they rarely offer a repair for the damage. The most frequent

form occurring in L2 expression of apology is 'Sorry'. Especially in Interviews, it has been found that most ESL learners have employed 'Sorry' for apology. In every situation, whenever they have to say sorry to the teacher for being late in the class, or to the proctor for beating a classmate or to the mother after misbehaving with her, or to a friend for losing his/her book, they have expressed their apology only by saying 'Sorry', the simplest, the shortest and the most informal way of apologizing. In Hindi/Urdu, the word 'sorry' has been borrowed from English and people also apologize by saying sorry in their L1. So, they have easily transferred this word from their L1. Another reason of using this expression of apology might be that it is a very simple form, and can be easily used by those who have no adequate command on the language. While native English speakers/writers use longer expressions for expressing an apology such as,

I am sorry to trouble you.

I am terrible sorry.

I beg your pardon. (see the table 14)

The above expressions of apology are missing in ESL learners' interviews and dialogue writings. Native speakers of English employ variant expressions of apology according to the context but in the study, which are lacked in the ESL students' expressions of apology. Thus, sometimes transfer of L1 expressions of apology or avoidance of using longer expressions of apology affects the learners' L2 performance.

### Analysis of Elicited Apologies in Interviews

(Based on Cohen and Olshtain, 1981)

S.N.	Strategy Type	Total No.	Percentage
1.	Expressions of apology with intensifiers	09	07.75%
2.	Expressions of apology without intensifiers	49	42.24%
3.	Acknowledgement of responsibility	06	05.17%
4.	Explanation	20	17.24%
5.	Offer of repair	0	0%
6.	Promise of non-recurrence	32	27.58%
7.	Interjectives	0	0%
8.	Total no. of all strategy types	116	100%

Table 16

### Analysis of Elicited Apologies in Dialogue Writing

(Based on Cohen and Olshtain,  
1981)

S.N.	Strategy Type	Total No.	Percentage
1.	Expressions of apology with intensifiers	22	19.64%
2.	Expressions of apology without intensifiers	36	32.14%
3.	Acknowledgement of responsibility	17	15.17%
4.	Explanation	13	11.60%
5.	Offer of repair	06	05.35%
6.	Promise of non-recurrence	18	16.07%
7.	Interjectives	0	0%
8.	Total no. of all strategy types	112	100%

Table 17

### An Expression of an Apology

In English language, most apologies are expressed with intensifiers; ESL learners in the study did not use intensifiers as frequently. This might be the lack of command of the language. Though, it is assumed that most of them must be familiar with the simple word 'very', they found it difficult to use it in a full sentence.



## **An Offer of Repair**

In Indian culture, it is not the trend to offer a repair for an offence. If a person does not attend a birthday party of a friend, he/she will not say something like, 'I could not come to your party so I am arranging a party for you'. While in English culture, it is normal to offer a repair for an offence, for example, for being unable to attend a birthday party of a friend, one might say,

How can I make it up to you- why don't I buy you lunch on Friday?

The results of the study show that a few students have offered a repair for losing a book of friend, for example,

The book which I had borrowed from you, has lost. Would you please tell me from where you have bought it so that I will try to bring a new copy of that book?

But here, the case is different. Students are needy and find difficult to meet their expenses. So, this type of repair in student life is acceptable otherwise this is not acceptable in Indian culture.

## **A Promise of Non-recurrence**

In the elicited responses, promise of non-recurrence has been found very frequently. If the offender promises not to repeat his/her offence again, the receiver easily forgives him/her. The offender's commitment rescues him but in English culture, this practice appears to be less frequent. Some examples from the elicited responses are the following:

Madam I am sorry. It would never be repeated again.

Ma'am I am sorry. This kind of act will not be repeated again in future.

## **The Study of the Speech Act of Greetings**

Greetings have been analyzed in terms of the following factors:

### **Politeness**

Basically, greetings are polite. The scale of politeness has been measured through very polite and polite strategies. Very polite strategy, e.g., 'Good morning', 'Good afternoon', 'Good evening' are used mostly in formal situations (to boss, seniors, teachers etc.) while polite strategy, e.g., 'Hello', 'Hi' is used among friends, relatives etc.

### **Formality**

Greetings have been analyzed on the basis of formality. Some greetings e.g., 'Good morning', 'Good afternoon', 'Good evening' are employed in formal settings and informal greetings, e.g., 'Hello', 'Hi' basically are used for close and informal relationships with the listener.

### **Religion-orientedness**

Mostly English speakers employ non-religion-oriented greetings e.g., 'Hello', 'Hi', 'Good morning', 'Good afternoon' and 'Good evening'. These greetings are universal greetings. Sometimes people use religion-oriented greetings which totally depend on the religious and cultural norms of the community. Religion-oriented greetings differ according to religion. In Hindi, 'Ram-Ram' is equivalent to saying 'Hello' and used mostly by the Hindu community, and in Urdu, 'Assalam-alaykum' is used frequently by the members of the Muslim community.

## Lists of Possible L2 Greeting Forms

A list of possible L2 forms of greetings in spoken English has been provided on the basis of the following four references of native speakers:

1. Grant Taylor's '*English Conversation Practice*' (1975) .
2. Kate Schrago-Lorden's '*English for Hotel Staff*' (1979).
3. Jeremy Harmer and John Arnold's '*Advanced Speaking Skills*' (1978).
4. J. A. Rimmer and J. Scott's '*English for Commercial Practice*' (1983).

### In Spoken English

S. N.	Grant Taylor	Kate Schrago-Lorden	Jeremy Harmer and John Arnold	J. A. Rimmer and J. Scott
1.	Hello.	Good afternoon.	Hello/Hi.	Good morning.
2.	I'm pleased to meet you.	Good evening, sir.	Pleased to meet you.	Good evening.
3.	How are you?	Good morning.	Good evening, How are you?	
4.	I am glad to see you.	Hello.	I am so pleased you could come/to see you.	
5.	How's everything?		Good morning.	
6.	Good to see you.		How do you do?	

**Table 18**

A list of possible L2 forms of greetings in written English has been provided on the basis of the following four references of native speakers:

1. J.M. Herzberg, C.F. Guild and J.N. Hook's *Better English*. (1952).
2. Lawrence D. Brennam 's *Business Communication*. (1960).
3. John Seely's *The Oxford Guide to Writing and Speaking* (1998).
4. Robert Barrass' *Writing at Work: A Guide to Better Writing in Administration, Business and Management* (2002).

### In Letter-writing

S. N.	J.M. Herzberg, C.F. Guild and J.N. Hook	Lawrence D. Brennam	John Seely	Robert Barrass
1.	Dear Sir	Sir/Madam	Dear Sir	Dear Sir
2.	Dear Dale	My Dear Sir	Dear Madam	Dear Madam
3.	Dear Uncle Warner	Dear Mr. Smith	Dear Mr./Mrs. Green	Dear Sirs
4.	Dear Mom/Dad	Dear Fred	Dear Alan	
5.	Dear Spike, How are you?	Gentlemen		
6.	Gentlemen	Dear Sir		

Table 19

### Lists of Possible L1 Greeting Forms

A corresponding list of possible L1 forms of greetings has also been provided by the researcher.

### In Spoken Hindi/Urdu

S. N.	Own Observation
1.	अस्सलामुअलयकुम / सलामुअलयकुम ।
2.	आदाब ।
3.	नमस्ते / नमस्कार ।
4.	आप कैसे हैं?
5.	हेलो ।
6.	हाय ।

Table 20

### In Letter-writing

S. N.	Own Observation
1.	म्होदय
2.	टादरणीय
3.	नमस्ते / नमस्कार
4.	पूजनीय, पिता जी / माता जी
5.	म्होदय, सविनय निवेदन है।
6.	श्रीमान / श्रीमती
7.	प्रिय बहन / प्रिय भैया
8.	ज्जबा
9.	मोहतरम / मोहतरमा
10.	प्यारे पापा / प्यारी बहन, अस्सलामुअलयकुम / आदाब
11.	आप कैसे हैं?

Table 21

### Analysis and Discussion

In most of the societies, communication starts with some kind of greetings, however, it may be matter of cross-cultural differences that forms of greetings change according to particular social norms, cultural groups and conventions. The researcher has made an attempt to see the greeting forms used by Hindi/Urdu speaking ESL learners of A.M.U., Aligarh be changed because of transfer or if they have transferred their L1 greeting forms, what are the effects of the transfer on L2 discourse performances or whether they have employed deviant forms or appropriate forms in their L2 discourse. The discussion has been made in the following points:

## **The Most Frequent Forms**

In the present research, Hindi/Urdu speaking learners of ESL use ‘Assalam-alaykum’ and ‘Good morning’ most frequently while communicating in English, Assalam-alaykum is the most common way to greet when people meet in Muslim community. Here, most ESL learners have made use this greeting form in formal situations: to their teachers and sometimes to strangers (for asking direction) and in informal situations: to their parents and to their friends. In the Muslim community, people generally start their communication with this greeting form and specially, in Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh, it is the convention that the students and teachers whether of Muslim community or of the other community (non-Muslim community), use this greeting form, which might vary in other educational universities. So, ESL learners of this university transfer this specific conventional form to their L2 discourse in each and every situation, e.g.,

Assalam-alaykum! (to parents).

Assalam-alaykum! (to friends).

Assalam-alaykum! (to teachers).

Assalam-alaykum! (to strangers).

This cultural transfer has occurred frequently in their discourse and the transfer of this frequent greeting form may be called deviant according to native norms. English speakers use only ‘Hi’, ‘Hello’ in informal situations and ‘Good morning’, ‘Good afternoon’ and ‘Good evening’ in formal situations (see table 18). In the study, learners of ESL have also made the use of ‘Good morning’, ‘Hello’ and ‘Hi’ though less frequently, in the following situations:

Good morning! (to friend at meeting in the morning).

Good morning! (to teacher in the class).

Hi! (to friend at meeting in the morning).

Hello! (to friend at meeting in the morning and to stranger for starting communication).

It means that ESL learners are aware of using the appropriate greeting forms according to the situations. In spite of awareness, they have transferred their L1 greeting forms, it may be the reason that they tend to transfer cultural norms and conventions whether those greeting norms are applicable or not in L2 culture. The reason behind using this cultural form of greetings may be their likings of Islamized and Indian conventions, and their wish to retain their cultural identity.

While in written discourse (letter-writing), ESL learners have employed 'Respected sir/madam' frequently in formal situations, e.g.,

Respected madam! (to teacher or provost).

Respected sir! (to editor or manager or provost).

Here, again they have transferred their cultural norms because in India, it is the convention to give more respect to elders; whereas English speakers use only 'Sir', 'Mr. Green' or 'Dear sir' (see table 20). Hindi/Urdu writers write आदरणीय, महोदय (in Hindi) जनाब, मोहतरम/मोहतरमा (in Urdu) in their L1 letter writing (see table 21) and in this study, it has been found that ESL learners have transferred their L1 greeting forms.

Secondly, Hindi/Urdu speaking ESL learners have transferred their Islamized and cultural greeting 'Assalam-alaykum' to L2 letter writing, e.g.,

Assalam-alaykum! (to parents).

Assalam-alaykum! (to sister).

Assalam-alaykum, sir! (to editor).

Assalam-alaykum, respected madam/sir! (to provost).

The above greeting form can be called deviant in L2 setting because this might not be applied in L2 culture.

### Analysis of Elicited Greetings in Interviews

S.N.	Strategy Type		Total No.	Percentage
1.	Politeness	Very polite	01	0.55%
		Polite	59	32.77%
2.	Formality	Formal	28	15.55%
		Informal	32	17.77%
3.	Religion-oriented ness	Religion-oriented	18	10%
		Non-religion-oriented	42	23.33%
4.	Total no. of all strategy types		180	100%

Table 22

### Analysis of Elicited Greetings in Dialogue Writings

S.N.	Strategy Type		Total No.	Percentage
1.	Politeness	Very polite	25	13.88%
		Polite	35	19.44%
2.	Formality	Formal	30	16.66%
		Informal	30	16.66%
3.	Religion-oriented ness	Religion-oriented	07	03.88%
		Non-religion-oriented	53	29.44%
4.	Total no. of all strategy types		180	100%

Table 23

#### Politeness

In greeting forms, ESL learners in the study remain polite in each and every situation as they have employed ‘Assalam-alaykum’, ‘Respected madam/sir’ ‘My dearest’ and ‘My dear’ which are very polite and appropriate polite greeting forms. ‘Assalam-alaykum’ is a polite form of greeting which shows regards for the listener and it is used in formal and informal situations; ‘Good morning’ has been employed by respondents frequently in both the situations.



## **Formality**

The results of the present study show that ESL students of A.M.U. tend to be very formal to their teachers, elders and sometimes to friends as they have used the following greeting forms frequently:

Respected madam/sir!

Assalam-alaykum, sir!

Good morning!

The informal greeting forms, e.g., 'Hi' and 'Hello' have been used only for friends; and have been often employed to get the attention of strangers (in train or at the station). In their L1, interlocutors use *अस्सलामुअलयकुम*, *आदरणीय*, *महोदय*, *जनाब* and *मोहतरम/मोहतरमा* and in L2 discourse, they have translated all these forms. In Hindi/Urdu, there is no equivalent of 'Hi' and 'Hello' therefore, ESL learners have avoided to use these greeting forms even in informal situations. To greet a friend as the results show, they have made use of 'Hi' very seldom and the use of 'Hello' has been found less than 'Respected madam/sir', 'Assalam-alaykum' and 'Good morning' in their spoken and written discourse. However, 'Respected madam/sir' and 'Assalam-alaykum' are Indianized forms which show that the ESL students of A.M.U. want to retain their cultural and religious identity. 'Good morning' is usually not used by native English speakers in informal situations.

## **Religion-orientedness**

Here, the researcher has tried to find out how much religion-orientedness is manifested governing the use of greeting forms in L2 patterns of this speech act. It has been found that most of the ESL learners in the study have made the transfer of their L1 greeting forms. They often say 'Hello, Assalam-alaykum' is the most frequent and sometimes they greet their parents or elders by touching

their feet (in Hindu community, youngsters show their respect just by touching feet of their elders) a practice not found in L2 community.

Thus, it is confirmed that Hindi/Urdu speaking ESL learners transfer their cultural and religious conventions and norms governing their L1 greeting forms to L2 production of the speech act of greeting. So, the answer of the first and second question is clear that transfer has a role in the greeting forms and sometimes it might affect ESL learners' performances negatively. The cultural and religious norms governing L2 patterns of greeting forms should be taught explicitly in the ESL classroom. Except this, there should be practice of L2 greeting forms in the ESL classroom so that ESL learners use appropriate L2 greeting forms fluently when in L2 context.

### **The Study of the Speech Act of Leave-takings**

Leave-takings have been analyzed on the basis of the factors which have been used in greetings: politeness, formality and religion-orientedness, and need not be repeated again.

## Lists of Possible L2 Leave-taking Forms

A list of possible L2 forms of leave-takings in spoken English has been provided on the basis of the following three references of native speakers:

1. Grant Taylor's '*English Conversation Practice*' (1975) .
2. Kate Schrago-Lorden's '*English for Hotel Staff*' (1979).
3. J. A. Rimmer and J. Scott's '*English for Commercial Practice*' (1983).

### In Spoken English

S. N.	Grant Taylor	Kate Schrago-Lorden	J. A. Rimmer and J. Scott
1.	Good bye.	Have a nice evening, sir.	Good night.
2.	Take care of yourself.	Good bye.	Good bye.
3.	See you later.	I hope you enjoyed....	
4.	Come back soon	Bye.	
5.	Well, it was fun to get together again.		
6.	It was nice to have seen you.		
7.	I am glad to have met you.		

**Table 24**

A list of possible L2 forms of leave taking in written English has been provided on the basis of the following four references of native speakers:

1. J.M. Herzberg, C.F. Guild and J.N. Hook's *Better English*. (1952).
2. Lawrence D. Brennam 's *Business Communication*. (1960).
3. John Seely's *The Oxford Guide to Writing and Speaking* (1998).
4. Robert Barrass' *Writing at Work: A Guide to Better Writing in Administration, Business and Management* (2002).

### In Letter-writing

S. N.	J.M. Herzberg, C.F. Guild and J.N. Hook	Lawrence D. Brennam	John Seely	Robert Barrass
1.	Yours faithfully	Respectfully yours	Yours faithfully	Yours faithfully
2.	Yours sincerely	Sincerely	A.B. Capstick	Yours sincerely
3.	Cordially yours	Yours very truly	Yours sincerely	Yours truly
4.	Yours loving son	Sincerely yours	Moirs	
5.	Yours truly	Cordially yours		
6.	Old pal Mill	Cordially		

**Table 25**

### Lists of Possible L1 Leave-taking Forms

A corresponding list of possible L1 forms of leave-takings has also been provided by the researcher on the basis of her own knowledge of Hindi/Urdu of which, she is a native speaker herself.

### In Spoken Hindi/Urdu

S. N.	Own Observation
1.	खुदा हाफिज/अल्लाह हाफिज ।
2.	अलविदा
3.	शुभरात्रि/शब-बखैर ।
4.	नमस्कार/नमस्ते ।
5.	बाय ।
6.	गुड बाय ।
7.	जल्दी वापस आना ।
8.	आपसे मिलकर खुशी हुई ।

**Table 26**

### In Letter-writing

S. N.	Own Observation
1.	आपका फरमावरदार
2.	आपका/आपकी नूरचश्म
3.	आपकी दुख्तर
4.	आपकी मारिया/आपका इब्राहीम
5.	खुदा हाफिज/अल्लाह हाफिज
6.	आपका आज्ञाकारी
7.	आपका शिष्टाचारी
8.	आपका सुपुत्र/ आपकी सुपुत्री
9.	आपका शुभचिन्तक

Table 27

## Analysis and Discussion

The researcher has examined the transfer of L1 leave-taking forms to L2 discourse. She has examined the most frequent leave-taking forms and strategy types used contrastively between L1 and L2.

### Most Frequent Forms

In interviews, Hindi/Urdu speaking ESL learners of the study have used 'Khuda/Allah hafiz' most frequently and in letter-writing also, this leave-taking form has been found very frequently. It is the Islamized form of 'Bye'. In the Muslim community, this form is used frequently in both the settings: formal and informal. Especially, in Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh where it is a trend to use 'Khuda/Allah hafiz' most frequently. So, ESL learners of the university (Muslim or non-Muslim) use this leave-taking form in the endings of

their discourse. In an L2 setting, this use might be perceived negatively. The next most frequent forms of leave-taking in interviews are ‘Good bye’ and ‘Bye’ which have been employed according to English norms. The third most frequent leave-taking form in interviews is ‘Thank you’ which is a thanking form but here, it has been used for saying bye as Hindi/Urdu speaking learners of English tend to show indebtedness to teachers and elders if they impose any action on youngsters, e.g., ESL learners of A.M.U., Aligarh say ‘Thank you, sir’ (to teacher) after the class as a signal of indebtedness. While in English community, people in this situation, first express their thanks then say bye, e.g., ‘Thank you sir, good bye’. Here, ESL learners have transferred their sense of indebtedness to L2 leave-taking patterns and this form may become deviant for L2 native listener/reader. The next frequently used form is ‘Assalam-alaykum’ which has been used in greeting forms because actually, this form can be applied to greeting as well as leave-taking. ‘Assalam-alaykum’ (a regard signal and a pray upon the listener, and it demands a response ‘Walaykum-assalam’ has been transferred by ESL learners to L2 discourse. Such terms are fine in the L1 setting, but when in an L2 setting the speakers need to use appropriate L2 forms, which imply that they should be explicitly taught. ‘Yours obediently’ also has been translated from their L1 as in L1, they use आपका आज्ञाकारी and आपका शिष्टाचारी. Here, again they have transferred their cultural convention that is, to give respect (too much) to elders.

### Analysis of Elicited Leave-takings in Interviews

S.N.	Strategy Type		Total No.	Percentage
1.	Politeness	Very polite	01	0.55%
		Polite	59	32.77%
2.	Formality	Formal	18	10%
		Informal	42	23.33%
3.	Religion-oriented ness	Religion-oriented	22	12.22%
		Non-religion-oriented	38	21.11%
4.	Total no. of all strategy types		180	100%

Table 28

### Analysis of Elicited Leave-takings in Dialogue Writings

S.N.	Strategy Type		Total No.	Percentage
1.	Politeness	Very polite	05	02.77%
		Polite	55	30.55%
2.	Formality	Formal	18	10%
		Informal	42	23.33%
3.	Religion-oriented ness	Religion-oriented	26	14.44%
		Non-religion-oriented	34	18.88%
4.	Total no. of all strategy types		180	100%

**Table 29**

#### **Politeness**

Sometimes leave-taking forms appear to be over-polite according to L2 cultural norms such as,

Yours obediently!

Take care, respected madam!

#### **Formality**

Here, ESL learners seem to have transferred their L1 patterns of formality to L2 leave-taking forms. ‘Yours obediently’ is an example in letter writing. Sometimes L1 norms are mixed with L2 norms such as,

Take care, respected madam! (see Appendix III.c.)

‘Take care’ is an informal expression combined with the formal expression ‘Respected madam’.

#### **Religion-orientedness**

The analysis makes it clear that most of the ESL learners use ‘Khuda hafiz’, ‘Assalam-alaykum’ and ‘Make dua’ (pray for me), Islamized forms transferred from L1 leave-taking forms. This might appear to be deviant forms to the

native listener/reader. However, ESL learners have made use non-religion-oriented forms also, e.g., 'Good bye', 'Bye' and sometimes 'Nice to meet you' and 'Take care' but the use of these forms have been found less frequently in comparison to 'Khuda hafiz' and 'Assalam-alaykum'. While native speakers of L2 prefer to use 'Bye', 'Good bye', 'Take care of yourself', 'See you later' 'Have a nice evening, sir' and so on (see table 24). This variety has not been found in the performance of ESL learners.

The use of religion oriented forms reflects their wish to retain their cultural and religious identity. However, the need to explicitly teaching of appropriate forms for L2 settings is obvious.

## **Conclusion and Pedagogical Implications**

Through a qualitative study (rigorous qualitative measures have not been used) of the data, it has been made clear that Hindi/Urdu speaking learners of ESL transfer their L1 cultural norms and conventions to L2 culture while using speech acts. Sometimes their L1 cultural and religious norms become deviant and might cause difficulty in understanding for native speakers of English.

The Indian ESL classrooms lack explicit teaching of speech acts in different social contexts. It may be because of the belief that speech acts can be learned on their own while communicating in English. It is believed by the researcher that L2 learners transfer their L1 cultural forms relating to the performance of speech acts. As the study shows, Hindi/Urdu speaking ESL learners of A.M.U., Aligarh transfer their L2 cultural and religious forms and norms to L2 production. A large amount of time is spent on grammatical exercises in ESL classroom even at the undergraduate level but the teaching of speech acts is not emphasized. Learners of English as second language use 'I am thankful', a deviant expression, which shows their happiness in place of gratitude, to receive a favour or a gift. This expression has been used frequently by ESL learners. They use simpler and shorter forms such as, 'Thanks', 'Sorry'



to express their gratitude and apology respectively while native speakers of English use variant expressions: long and short. It has been observed that ESL learners are not able to use all strategy types of requests, thanks, apologies, greetings and leave-takings.

It can be pointed out that by retaining their L1 forms in L2 settings such as, 'Assalam-alaykum', and transferring their cultural norms in written greetings such as, 'Respected sir/madam', they wish to preserve their socio-cultural and religious identities. However, when engaged in communication with native speakers of English, they should also be equipped with and be able to use corresponding native speaker forms in order to avoid unintelligibility or embarrassment or lack of acceptance. Thus, it is suggested that these speech act forms should be taught explicitly in the ESL classroom.

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# *Appendices*

## **APPENDIX I. a.**

### **Task 1**

Name of the Student:

Mother Tongue:

Class:

Word Limit [100]

Describe any one of these processes first in Hindi/Urdu then translate to English:

1. Making tea.
2. Looking up the meaning of a word in a dictionary.
3. Getting a book issued from the library.

### **Task 2**

Name of the Student:

Mother Tongue:

Class:

Word Limit [150]

Narrate any one of these topics first in Hindi/Urdu then translate to English:

1. An accident.
2. A ghost story.
3. An interesting incident of your life.

### **Task 3**

Name of the Student:

Mother Tongue:

Class:

Word Limit [200]

Argue any one of these topics first in Hindi/Urdu then translate to English:

1. Hypocrisy is a virtue.
2. Relations are a nuisance.
3. Exploring the past is a purposeless activity.

## APPENDIX I. b.

### Script 1

Name of the Student: Naeem Ahmad

#### Task 1(Descriptive)

##### चाय बनाने की विधि

सबसे पहले एक भगोना लें और उसमें एक कप पानी डालें। फिर गैस जलाएं और भगोना आग पर रख दें। जब पानी उबलने लगे तो उसमें चाय पत्ती डालें और गैस पर धीरे से रखें। जब चाय पत्ती अपना रंग छोड़ दे और पानी का रंग काला हो जाए तो उसमें 1/3 (भाग) दुग्ध डाल दें और एक चम्मच शक्कर डालें। जब मिश्रण में उबाल आए तो गैस बन्द कर के भगोना उतार लें। आपकी चाय तैयार है।

##### Making tea

First of all, take a pan and add a cup of water into it. Then light the gas and put the pan on the burner. When the water gets boiled then add some tea-leaves and stir it gently on the gas. When it gives colour, add 1/3 cup of milk to it and add also a full spoon of sugar. Finally when it gets boiled, switch off the gas and put off the pan from the gas. Your tea is ready.

#### Task 2(Narrative)

##### एक दुर्घटना

बात उस समय की है जब मैं सातवीं कक्षा का छात्र था। 1:30 बजे विद्यालय की छुट्टी हुई। गर्मी के कारण शरीर झुलस रहा था। अतः मैं शीघ्र-अति-शीघ्र घर पहुँचना चाहता था और तेजी से साइकिल चला रहा था। तभी सामने से एक बुढ़िया सी महिला आई जिसके कपड़े चिथड़ों की तरह शरीर पर झुल-झुल लटक रहे थे। उसके चेहरे पर सैकड़ों झुर्रियाँ थी, बाल उलझे हुए तथा कमर झुकी हुई थी। मैं इतने वेग से साइकिल चला रहा था कि संभल नहीं सका और रोकते-रोकते भी मेरी साइकिल उससे टकरा गई और हैंडिल उसकी आस्तीन में अटक गया जिससे वह जमीन पर अचेत गिर गई उसके सर से खून बह रहा था। मैंने तुरन्त अपने साइकिल समीप के एक घर में खड़ी की तथा उसकी सहायता के लिए पहुँचा। परन्तु तब तक बहुत देर हो चुकी थी और अस्पताल पहुँचते-पहुँचते उसने दम तोड़ दिया। मेरे हृदय को झटका सा लगा और वह करुणा से रो उठा। तब से मैंने ठान ली कि गाड़ी सदा हल्की रफ्तार से चलाया करूँगा।

##### An accident

It was happened when I was the student of 7<sup>th</sup> class. At 1:30 the school was closed. Due to heat, my body was burning. Then I was returning to home from school. I was riding my bicycle fast due to heat and I wanted to home as soon as possible because the weather was very hard. Then a woman looking like old whose clothes were hanging on her body as in scattered form, came into my way. But even willingly, I could not save her from accident. She was wearing torn clothes. Her back was bent and her face was full of wrinkles. Her torn sleeve entangled in the handle of my bicycle and she fell down on the road. I stopped my bicycle at once,

made it stand at the nearby house and took her to the hospital. But it was too late and she lost her life in the way. From this accident I realized my mistake and determined that I will never my vehicle with a fast speed in future. As if we can not give life to anybody then we have no right to take lives of the others.

### **Task 3(Expository)**

#### **भूतकाल को खोजना एक उद्देश्य रहित कार्य।**

आज कल के व्यस्त जीवन में जहां भविष्य और वर्तमान के कार्यों के लिए समय नहीं है वहां अगर भूत की बात की जाए तो यह समय की बर्बादी के अलावा कुछ नहीं है। इतिहास को जानना और उनके बारे में सोचना, क्या अच्छा था क्या बुरा किससे लाभ हुआ किससे हानि तथा यह फिर होना चाहिए या नहीं इससे कहीं अच्छा है कि अपने भविष्य के लिए सोचना। अगर भूत अच्छा नहीं था तो भविष्य अच्छा बनाना और अगर भूत अच्छा था तो उसे वैसे ही बनाए रखना। खोज भूत की कुछ नहीं होती जबकि खोज भविष्य की अविष्कार कहलाती है। वर्तमान समय में सभी चाहे वो भूतकाल में राजा थे या दास बराबर हैं। आज कल आपको कुछ भी विरासत से नहीं मिलता अपने लिए अपने आप कुछ करना पड़ता है। वर्तमान समय में कोई कमजोर नहीं और न बलवान कानून सबके लिए बराबर जबकि भूत में ऐसा नहीं था। अगर आप अपने भूत के बारे में सोच कर घमण्ड करेंगे तो आप कुछ नहीं कर सकते।

#### **Exploring the past is a purposeless activity.**

In today's busy life where is no time for the future and present. If anyone talks about the past, he is wasting his time in stead of utilizing time. Thinking about history and knowing about past that what was good, what was bad from what we might get profit and from what we might get loss and it might repeat again or not. It is better that think about your future than the past. If your past was not good, make your future good and if the past was good then maintain it the same. Search of the past is nothing while the search of future is called is invention.

In present time, it is the concept that all persons whether may be king or servant is equal. There is nothing from inheritance you got. You have to do everything own self for you. In present none is weak and powerful, the laws are equal for everyone while that was not in the past like it. If you are happy with thinking about your past, you can not do anything in future.

## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Naeem Ahmad

Class: XI<sup>11</sup>th

Mother tongue: Hindi

Descriptive Writing Task: Making tea.

L1 Script				L2 Script						
Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1 सबसे पहले डाले।	सबसे पहले, और	-	2	1 Take a pan in it	First of all, and	First of all, and		2	First of all, and	-
2 फिर गैस रख दे।	फिर और	-	2	2 Then light burner	Then, and	Then, and	-	2	Then, and	-
3 जब पानी डाले	जब तो और	-	3	3 When the water gas	When, then, and	When, then, and	-	3	When, and	Then
4 जब घाय बककर डालें	जब, और तो	तो	3	4 When it sugar	When, and, also	When, and	Also	3	When, and	-
5 जब मिश्रण तैयार है।	जब तो	तो	2	5. Finally gas	Finally, when, and	When	Finally, and	3	When	-

- Total number of analyzed sentences:  $5 (L1) + 5 (L2) = 10$
- Total number of linking devices in L1: 12
- Additional linking devices in L1: 2
- Total number of linking devices in L2: 13
- Additional linking devices in L2: 3
- Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 10
- Total number of positively transferred linking devices in L2: 9
- Total number of negatively transferred linking devices in L2: 1

**Table 1**

## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Naeem Ahmad

Class: XI I<sup>th</sup>

Mother tongue: Hindi

Narrative Writing Task: An accident

L1 Script

L2 Script

Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1 बात छात्र था।	जब	—	1	1 It 7 <sup>th</sup> class	When	When	—	1	When	—
2 गर्मी के चला रहा था।	के कारण, अतः, और	—	3	2 I was hard	As to, because, and	Due to, because, and	As	4	Due to, because, and	—
3 तभी रहे थे।	तभी, सी, जिसके, की तरह	—	4	3 Then my way.	Then, like, whose, as	Then, like, whose, as	—	4	Then, like, whose, as	—
4 मैं इतनी गिर गई।	इतने, कि, और भी, और, जिससे	इतने, कि, और सी, जिससे	6	4 Her road	And	And	—	1	And	—
5 मैंने पहुँचा।	तथा	—	1	5 I stopped hospital	And	And	—	1	And	—
6 परन्तु दिया।	परन्तु, और	—	2	6 But it only	But, too, and	But, and	Too	3	But, and	—

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $6(L1) + 6(L2) = 12$

2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 17

3. Additional linking devices in L1: 5

4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 14

5. Additional linking devices in L2: 2

6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 12

7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices in L2: 12

8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices in L2: 0

Table 2

## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Naeem Ahmad      Class: XIth      Mother tongue: Hindi  
**Expository Writing Task:** Exploring the past is a purposeless activity.  
 L1 Script      L2 Script

Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1 आजकल के नहीं हैं।	जहाँ, और	—	2	1 In today present	Where, and	Where, and	—	2	Where, and	—
2 वहाँ अगर नहीं है।	अगर, के अलावा, तो	तो	3	2 If time	If, in stead of	If, in stead of	—	2	If, in stead of	—
3 इतिहास सोचना।	और, तथा, या, कि	—	4	3 Thinking not	And, and, or, that, and, and,	And, and, or, that	And, and	6	And, and, or, that	—
4 अगर मूल रखना।	अगर, तो, और, तो	तो	4	4 If your past same	If, and, if, then	If, and, if, then	If	4	If, and, if, then	—
5 खोज कहलाती है।	जबकि	—	1	5 Search called	While	While	—	1	While	—
6 वर्तमान समय बराबर है।	चाहे, या	—	2	6 In present like it	That, whether, or	Whether, or	That	3	Whether, or	—
7 अगर आप सकते।	अगर, तो	तो	2	7 If you future	If	If	—	1	If	—

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $7 (L1) + 5 (L2) = 14$       5. Additional linking devices in L2: 4
2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 18      6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 15
3. Additional linking devices in L1: 3      7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 15
4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 19      8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

**Table 3**

## Script 2

Name of the student: Nabeel Mustaque Ahmed

### Task 1(Descriptive)

#### पुस्तकालय से पुस्तक प्राप्त करना

पुस्तकालय से पुस्तक निकालना एक आसान काम है। जब मैं पुस्तक निकालने के लिए गया तब पहले मैंने अपना बैग काउन्टर पर जमा करा। बैग जमा करने के बाद मैं पुस्तकालय के पुस्तक इश्यू करने वाले विभाग में कम्प्यूटर पर गया। वहां कम्प्यूटर को मैंने खोला तथा स्क्रीन पर पुस्तक के लेखक तथा पुस्तक का नाम लिखा। लिखने के बाद उसे सर्च कर दिया। कुछ समय पश्चात कम्प्यूटर पर पुस्तक से सम्बन्धित कोड नं० व अन्य जानकारी आ गयी। तत्पश्चात उस कोड के माध्यम से मैंने अपना लाइब्रेरी कार्ड से वो पुस्तक निकलवाली। कम्प्यूटर प्रणाली से अब पुस्तक निकालना बहुत आसान, सुविधा जनक हो गया है।

#### Getting a book issued from the library.

A book issue from the library is an easy process. When we went to get a book issued from the library, first we go to the library bag counter then deposit bag. After depositing bag, we go to the text book issue department and sit on the computer. Then after we open the computer and type the name of writer and book and click the search key. After sometimes, book code number and other important information related to the book come to the screen. Then after with the help of this code we receive the book and give the library card. Now the book issue system has become easy after the using of computer system.

### Task 2(Narrative)

#### एक दुर्घटना

जब मैं कल अपने विद्यालय से घर लौट रहा था तो मैंने देखा कि रेलवे क्रॉसिंग के पास लोगों की भीड़ एकत्रित थी। बात चीत करने पर पता चला कि यहां एक रेलगाड़ी से साइकिल सवार व्यक्ति की मृत्यु हो गयी है। पूछताछ से मालूम हुआ कि वह व्यक्ति क्रॉसिंग को पार कर रहा था और दाये से ट्रेन आ रही थी, पर भी वह चल रहा था अतः चलती ट्रेन ने उसे रौंद दिया। मैं देखता हूं कि पत्रकार आ गये और जांच कर रहे हैं। प्रशासन भी पहुंच गया था। मृत व्यक्ति को पोस्टमार्टम के लिये भेज दिया गया। यह एक दर्दनाक हादसा था।

#### An accident

Yesterday when I was returning my home from the school, I saw that a crowd of people gathered near the railway crossing. After discussing with some people, I found that there, a dangerous accident was happened of a cycle man with a train. After talking I had to know that the man was crossing the railway line and the train was coming from the left side but he went continuously without fear hence that train crushed him. I saw that



news-reporters had come and police force also came. The dead body of that man was sent for the postmortem. It was a terrible accident.

### Task 3(Expository)

#### भूतकाल को खोजना एक उद्देश्य रहित कार्य।

भूतकाल की खोज करना- अपने इतिहास की खोज करना एवं अपनी पुरानी सभ्यता और जीवन जीने के तरीके की खोज करना और खोज करना किस तरह हमारे पूर्वज रहते थे क्या था उनका ज्ञान-विज्ञान। कुछ लोगों का यह बात बेमानी व फिज़ूल की लगती है जिसमें पैसा और वक्त दोनों बरबाद होते हैं। उनका कहना है कि आखिर हमारा अब उनकी सभ्यता से क्या वास्ता रह गया है। हम अपनी सभ्यता के उच्चतम स्थान पर हैं और वे निचतम स्थान पर थे।

लेकिन यह कहना बिल्कुल गलत है। इन्सान की सबसे बड़ी खूबी है अपनी गलतियों से सीखना और वह अपनी पूर्व-सभ्यता की खोज कर एवं मिटने का कारण जान अपनी पूर्व-कालीन गलतियों से सीख पाता है और आगे आने वाली कुदरती एवं मानवकृत आपदाओं एवं समस्याओं से बचने के उपाय करता है। यह बात बिल्कुल सही है "इतिहास खुद को दोहराता है"। अपने गौरवपूर्ण इतिहास को जान हमें जो गर्व प्राप्त होता है वह हमें अपने देश को फिर से एक करने में मदद भी करता है। इतिहास हमें आगे बढ़ने की प्रेरणा देता है। कोई भी व्यक्ति या देश अपने इतिहास को छोड़ कभी भी तरक्की नहीं कर सकता है। अतः अपने इतिहास का पता करना एक अत्यंत महत्वपूर्ण कार्य है।

#### Exploring the past is a purposeless activity.

To explore the past i.e. to know our history, to explore our old civilization and the way they were living, to know how our ancestors live and what were their achievements in science and technology. All these things and reasons are being considered nuisance and purposeless by many people who think that exploring the past is a useless and purposeless activity in which we wasting both our money and time which may be used for our further development. They say what is our relation or connection with them or their civilization. They feel that we are at the zenith of our life and civilization and they were at the bottom. But all these thoughts are just rubbish. The most important characteristic of human being which distinguishes him from others is his sense to learn from his mistakes and with his characteristics and he explores his past to know the reasons why the ancient civilization disappeared and realizes the old mistakes and with these old experiences, he tries to find the ways to escape from or to face the further coming natural and man-made epidemics and problems. More over it is truly said "History repeats itself". By knowing our history, we get pride which inspires us to get national integrity and history teaches us to move forward. No country or man also could progress after leaving its history. Therefore, to explore our history is an important and useful task.

## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Nabeel Mustaque Ahmed      Class: XIth      Mother tongue: Hindi  
**Descriptive Writing Task:** Getting a book issued from the library.

L1 Script				L2 Script						
Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking Devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1 जब मैं जमा करा।	जब, तब, पहले	—	3	1 When we my bag	When, first, then	When, first, then	—	3	When, first, then	—
2 बैग जमा पर गया।	बाद	—	1	2 After depositing computer	After, and	After	And	2	After	—
3 वहाँ कम्प्यूटर लिखा।	तथा, तथा	—	2	3 Then after key	Then, after, and, and, and	And, and	Then, after, and	5	And, and	—
4 कुछ समय आ गयी।	पश्चात, व	—	2	4 After sometimes screen	After, and	After, and		2	After, and	—
5 तत्पश्चात उस निकल वाली	तत्पश्चात	—	1	5 Then after card	Then, after, and	After	Then, and	3	After	—
6 कम्प्यूटर प्रणाली हो गया है।	अब	—	1	6 Now the book system	Now, after	Now	After	2	Now	—

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $6 (L1) + 6 (L2) = 12$
2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 10
3. Additional linking devices in L1: 0
4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 17
5. Additional linking devices in L2: 7
6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 10
7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 10
8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

**Table 4**

## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Nabeel Mustaque Ahmed      Class: XIth      Mother tongue: Hindi

Narrative Writing Task: An accident

L1 Script

L2 Script

Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1 जब मे एकत्रित थी।	जब, तो, कि	तो	3	1 When yesterday the railway	When, that	When, that	-	2	When, that	-
2 बातचीत करने हो गयी है।	पर, कि,	-	2	2 After a train	After, that	After, that	-	2	After, that	-
3 पूछताछ से रौंद दिया।	कि, पर, और, भी, अत	-	5	3 After taking him	After, that, but, and, hence, also	That, but, and, also, hence	After	6	That, but, and, also, hence	-
4 मैं देखता रहे हैं।	कि, और	-	2	4 I saw come	That, and	That, and	-	2	That, and	-

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $4(L1) + 4(L2) = 8$
2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 12
3. Additional linking devices in L1: 1
4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 12
5. Additional linking devices in L2: 1
6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 11
7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 11
8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

Table 5

## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Nabeel Mustaque Ahmed      Class: XI11th      Mother tongue: Hindi  
Expository Writing Task: Exploring the past is a purposeless activity.  
L1 Script      L2 Script

Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1 मृतकाल की ज्ञान-विज्ञान।	एव, और	—	3	1 To explore technology	And, and, and	And, and, and	—	3	And, and, and	—
2 कुछ लोगो होते हैं।	और, और, जिसने	—	3	2 All these development	And, and, and, who, that, in which, which	And, and, in which	Who, that, and, which	8	And, and, in which	—
3 इन्सान की करता है।	और, और, एव, एव, एव	—	5	3 The most problems	Which, and, and, and, or, and, and	And, and, and, and, and, and	Which, or	7	And, and, and, and, and	—
4 अपने गौरवपूर्ण करता है।	जो, भी	—	2	4 By knowing forward	Which, and	Which, and	—	2	Which, and	—
5 कोई भी व्यक्ति सकता है।	भी, या	—	2	5 No country history	After, or, also	Or, also	After	3	Or, also	—
6 अत कार्य है।	अत	—	1	6 Therefore taste	Therefore, and	Therefore	And	2	Therefore	—

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $6(L1) + 6(L2) = 12$
2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 16
3. Additional linking devices in L1: 0
4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 25
5. Additional linking devices in L2: 9
6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 16
7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 16
8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

**Table 6**

## Script 3

Name of the student: Kuldeep

### Task 1(Descriptive)

#### चाय बनाने की विधि

चाय बनाने के लिए सबे पहले हम चाय बनाने के बर्तन में आवश्यकतानुसार पानी लेते हैं और उसे आग पर रखते हैं तत्पश्चात उसमें एक चम्मच चाय की पत्ती व स्वादानुसार शक्कर डालते हैं। जब पानी अच्छी तरह उबलने लगता है उसमें पानी के अनुपात में दूध डालते हैं। अच्छी सुगन्ध के लिए उसमें अदरक और इलायची आदि डाल देते हैं और चाय को उबलने देते हैं। अच्छी तरह से उबलने के बाद उसे प्यालों में छान लेते हैं। और इस तरह हमारी चाय पीने के लिए तैयार हो जाती है।

#### Making tea

For making tea first, we take some water in tea pot and put the pot on fire after that we put a spoon of tealeaves and sugar as your taste into the pot. When water boils, we pour milk or milk powder in proper ratio of water in that pot. For good smell, we put ginger and cardamom in the pot and let tea to boil. After boiling well, we filter it in cups. And now our tea is ready to drink.

### Task 2(Narrative)

#### एक दुर्घटना

घटना का अर्थ है बिना किसी योजना के तहत किसी बुरे कार्य का होना जिससे मानव को शारीरिक, मानसिक अथवा आर्थिक समस्याओं का सामना करना पड़ता जैसे किसी गाड़ी से टक्कर हो जाना जिससे उसे काफी घाव आता है जो उसकी शारीरिक कष्ट है। दवा के लिए पूंजी लगाना ये उसकी आर्थिक समस्या है और चोट लगने की वजह से उसकी पीड़ा एवं उसकी कराह यह उसकी मांसिक समस्या है कहने का अभिप्राय ये है कि मनुष्य जब किसी दुर्घटना का शिकार होता है तो उसे तीन बड़ी समस्याओं का सामना करना पड़ता है। और वह अगर इन समस्याओं से बचना चाहे तो उसे इसके लिये सावधानी बरतनी होगी जैसे गाड़ी को तेज गति से न चलाना और रोड देख कर पार करना।

#### An accident

'Accident' means a circumstance taken place without any plan by which affected person faces three types of tortures: physical torture, mental torture, economical torture. To spend money for medicine, it is his economic problem and due to injury, his pain is his physical and mental torture, I mean to say that when a person becomes victim of an accident, he has to face three big problems. So if we do not want to get such type of torture, we should follow the traffic rules and cross the road according to signal and do not drive bike in a high speed.

### Task 3(Expository)

#### सम्बन्ध मूर्खता है।

श्रीमान, कौन कहता है कि सम्बन्ध मूर्खता है? भूतकाल की तरह वर्तमान काल में भी सम्बन्ध पूजनीय होते हैं। क्या हमारी भारतीय सभ्यता के अनुसार आज भी हम प्रातः काल में उठकर अपने माता-पिता के चरण स्पर्श नहीं करते? क्या जो माता हमें अपनी कोख से जन्म देती है, हम मरते दम तक उसका आदर-सत्कार नहीं करते? क्या उसको भगवान का ही एक रूप नहीं मानते? यही सम्बन्ध है जो हमें संसार में कुछ कर दिखाने के लिए प्रेरित करते हैं। हमारे मन में चाहे जो भी हो परन्तु अनायास ही हृदय के एक कोने से एक आवाज सुनाई देती है प्रेम का स्वर उसी को एक आदेश मानकर हम अपने रिश्तेदारों की आज्ञा का पालन नहीं करते। यह एक स्नेह, सहानुभूतिमय व्यवहार होता है जो कि हम सबको एक सूत्र में बांधता है। हमारी एक-एक उपलब्धता से हमारे माता-पिता का सिर गौरवान्वित होता है। परन्तु हमारी ही एक छोटी सी त्रुटि से हमारे संस्कार धरे रह जाते हैं और कुल की नाक कट जाती है और नेत्र झुक जाते हैं।

पं० जवाहरलाल नेहरू जब जेल में थे तब भी वह अपनी पुत्री को नहीं भूले और उन्हें पत्र लिखते रहे। यह रिश्तेदारों की जुदाई, स्वर्गवास हो जाने का ही आक्रोश था जिसने भारतवासियों को अंग्रेजों के विरोध में क्रांति करने के लिए प्रोत्साहित किया। इससे यह सिद्ध होता है कि रिश्ते में आज भी शक्ति है।

#### Relations are a nuisance.

Sir, who says that relations are a nuisance? Is there anyone who does not follow the relations? In the present, relations are respectable like the past time. According to our Indian culture, do we touch the feet of our parents in the morning? Do we not give respect to our mother till our death, who gives us birth from her womb? These are the relations which inspire us to do something in the world. Then what may be in our hearts but we respect our relatives to hear the voice of our love. It is our lovely and sympathetic behaviour which ties us in a knot. Our parents feel proud of our achievements. But when we do any mistake, our parents feel ashamed and the nose of our family is cut and our parents' eyes feel ashamed.

When Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru was in jail, he did not forget his daughter in that condition and he also wrote letters to his dearest daughter. It was the anger of the death of their relatives that inspired Indians for revolt against the British. This proves that relation is not nuisance. It is a gift of God.

## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Kuldeep Class: X1th Mother tongue: Hindi  
Descriptive Writing Task: Making tea.

L1 Script			L2 Script							
Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1 चाय बनाने डालते हैं।	सबसे पहले, और, तत्पश्चात, व	—	4	1 For making on fire	First, and, after, and, as	First, and, after, and	As	5	First, and, after, and	—
2 जब पानी डालते हैं।	जब	—	2	2 When water pot	When	When	—	1	When	—
3 अच्छी सुगन्ध देते हैं।	और, और	—	2	3 For good smell boil	And, and	And, and	—	2	And, and	—
4 अच्छी तरह लेते हैं।	बाद	—	1	4 After boiling cups	After	After	—	1	After	—

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $4 (L1) + 4 (L2) = 8$
2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 8
3. Additional linking devices in L1: 0
4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 9
5. Additional linking devices in L2: 1
6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 8
7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 8
8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

Table 7

# Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Kuldeep Class: XI<sup>th</sup> Mother tongue: Hindi  
Narrative Writing Task: An accident

## L1 Script

## L2 Script

Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1 घटना का कष्ट दे।	जिससे, अथवा, जैसे, जिससे, जो	अथवा, जैसे, जिससे, जो	5	1 Accident torture	By which	By which	—	1	By which	—
2 दवा के लिए पडता है।	और, की वजह से, व, कि, जब, तो	तो	6	2 To spend tortures	And, due to, and, that, when	And, due to, and, that, when	—	5	And, due to, and, that, when	—
3 और अगर पर करना।	और, अगर, जैसे, और	जैसे	4	3 So if high speed	So, if, and, according to, and	And, if, and	So, according to	5	And, if, and,	—

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $3(L1) + 3(L2) = 6$

2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 15

3. Additional linking devices in L1: 6

4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 11

5. Additional linking devices in L2: 2

6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 9

7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 9

8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

Table 8



## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Kuldeep

Class: XI 11th

Mother tongue: Hindi

Expository Writing Task: Relations are a nuisance.

L1 Script

L2 Script

Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1 श्रीमान हैं	कि	-	1	1 Sir nuisance	That	That	-	1	That	-
2 यही सम्बन्ध करते हैं।	जो	-	1	2 These are world	Which	Which	-	1	Which	-
3 हमारे मन कहते।	परन्तु	-	1	3 Then what love	Then, but	But	Then	2	But	-
4 परन्तु हमारी जाते हैं।	परन्तु और और	-	3	4 But when we ashamed.	But, when, and, and	But, and, and	When	4	But, and, and	-
5 प० जवाहरलाल नेहरू रहे।	जब, तब, मी, और	तब,	4	5 Nehru daughter Pandit	When, and, also	When, and, also	-	3	When, and, also	-
6 इससे यह शक्ति है।	कि	-	1	6 This proves nuisance	That	That	-	1	That	-

1. Total number of analyzed sentences: 6(L1) + 6 (L2) = 12

2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 11

3. Additional linking devices in L1: 1

4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 12

5. Additional linking devices in L2: 2

6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 10

7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 10

8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

**Table 9**

## Script 4

Name of the student: Dhanraj Sharma

### Task 1(Descriptive)

#### पुस्तकालय से पुस्तक प्राप्त करना

पुस्तकालय से पुस्तक निकालने के लिए पहले कम्प्यूटर पर लेखक का नाम तथा किताब का नाम स्क्रीन पर लिखते हैं। यह एक आसान प्रकरण है। कम्प्यूटर स्क्रीन हमें किताब का कोड नम्बर बताता है। कम्प्यूटर प्रणाली से यह प्रकरण बहुत आसान हो गया है। एक लाइब्रेरी जहां लाखों की संख्या में किताब हो वहां किसी एक किताब को खोजना बहुत मुश्किल है। लेकिन कम्प्यूटर ने यह काम आसान किया है। बुक कोड लेने के बाद इश्यू काउन्टर पर अपना लाइब्रेरी कार्ड देने पर किताब मिल जाती है। लाइब्रेरी से किताब निकालने तथा जमा करने के लिए लाइब्रेरी कार्ड एक महत्वपूर्ण चीज हैं।

#### Getting a book issued from the library.

Getting a book issued from the library is a simple process. First of all, to issue the book from the library, we type the author's name and book name in computer. That computer tells us the book code. It is very difficult to get a particular book from a library where books are in lakhs. But the computer procedure has made easy. When we tell the book code on the book counter, they make that book issued after depositing the library card. It is a necessary thing that helps in issuing a book and submission of a book.

### Task 2(Narrative)

#### भूत की कहानी

एक बार दोस्तों का समूह बहुत दिनों बाद एकत्रित हुए उन्होंने अपने अनुभव और घटनाओं का जिक्र किया। उनमें से एक बहुत बोर हो गया था और उसने अपने साथ घटी घटना का वर्णन किया। उसने कहा कि एक बार जब वह बीमार था उसने एक चेहरा अपनी दीवार पर देखा। वह उस चेहरे का खोजने के लिए जहां लोग ज्यादा इकट्ठे होते थे वहां गया।

आखिर में उसने उस चेहरे को खोज लिया। वह एक अमीर और प्रसिद्ध आदमी था। उसने एक दिन अखबार में पढ़ा कि वह प्रसिद्ध आदमी बीमार हो गया है। उसने यह भी नोट किया कि वो चेहरा धीरे-धीरे गायब हो रहा है। अगले दिन उसने अखबार में पढ़ा कि वो मर गया है और वो चेहरा दीवार पर से गायब हो गया। उसने कहा कि इस कहानी में तीन बातें महत्वपूर्ण हैं। पहली बात उसने वो चेहरा कभी नहीं देखा था। दूसरी बात थी कि जो चेहरा उस दीवार पर था वो आदमी के मरने के साथ ही गायब हो गया है। तीसरी बात यह थी कि उसने कहानी आधे घंटे पहले ही बनाई थी।

#### A ghost story.

One day a group of friends met after a very long time and discussed about their incidents and experiences of their lives. One of them became story teller and told them his own story. He said that when he was ill and was taking rest on his bed, he saw a face on the wall. It was like a human face, and same structure. Now he was in the search of that face which appeared to be in his wall. Everyday he searched the face in public places. To discover the face, he went to every place where people gather in a large number like bus station, railway station, market, etc.

Finally, he found the face. He was a rich and famous person. One day he read the newspaper and saw that the famous man was ill. And he noted that the face on wall was slowly being invisible. He told his friends that next day, the man was killed and he saw the face on the wall completely disappeared. He said that in this story, three points were important, first he never saw the face on the wall, second the face was disappeared as the man was killed and third and important thing was that the story was made before half an hour.

### Task 3(Expository)

#### सम्बन्ध मूर्खता है।

यह बड़े आश्चर्य की बात है कि आज मानव जाति के इस विकास के युग में ऐसे विषयों पर तर्क-वितर्क की स्थिति आ गई है जिनका संबंध मानव की आंतरिक आवश्यकता से है। मनुष्य, जिसके जीवन का आधार सामाजिक आदान-प्रदान के ऊपर निर्मित है उसके लिए सम्बंधों का मूल्य अतुलनीय है। आज मनुष्य ने जीवन के हर क्षेत्र में प्रगति कर ली है, और प्रमात से संध्या तक उसका प्रत्येक कार्य मशीन की सहायता से क्रियान्वित होता है। इस कलरव कूजित कलयुग में मानव दिन भर अपनी आय कमाने के साधन जुटाने में लगा रहता है। ऐसे जीवन में उसने अपने जीवन के कुछ आदर्श मूल्य भुला दिये हैं। इन्हीं में से एक मूल्य जो मनुष्य ने विलुप्त होने की स्थिति में डाल दिया है, वह है- सामाजिकता।

वह भूल गया है कि वह एक सामाजिक प्राणी है। जीवन को मशीनों की तरह स्थित बनाकर वह अपने सगे-सम्बन्धियों के साथ व्यवहार करना भूल गया है। यही कारण है कि आज कल प्रत्येक व्यक्ति को उदासीनता की बीमारी है।

अगर आज भी मनुष्य अपने जीवन में सामाजिकता को उभारने का प्रयत्न करे तो उसका उदासीन, वियागी जीवन में सुख, खुशहाली आ सकती है। सगे सम्बन्धियों के साथ उठने बैठने का यही महत्व है। अतः यही आवश्यकता है कि मानव अपनी सामाजिक भूमिका को बनाए रखे।

#### Relations are a nuisance.

It is quite surprising that in this scientific world, we have come to state when we have to debate on our needs. Human life is built upon the pillars of social interactions. Relations are the most important aspect of social interactions which are forgotten by men in today's world.

Today man has enormously progressed in every field of life. Every sphere of human life has become mechanical, dependent on machines. From dusk to dawn, his every task is completed by the help of machines. All the day he is working for his earnings. Such regularity of life has made him forget some of the most important aspects of human nature. One of these morals which are about to be extinct is social life.

Man has forgotten his identity as a social animal. By making life as regular as machines, he has forgotten to interact with his relatives. That's the reason behind all these problems like depression and stress in today's life. Even if today man reconstitutes his social interactions, he will lead a happy life free from any stress or tension. That is the reason we stress too much or irritation.

## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices in L2 writing

Name of the student: Dhanraj Sharma      Class: XI<sup>th</sup>      Mother tongue: Hindi  
**Descriptive Writing Task:** Getting a book issued from the library.

L1 Script				L2 Script						
Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1 पुस्तकालय से लिखते हैं।	पहले, तथा	—	2	1 First of all in computer	First of all, and	First of all, and	—	2	First of all, and	—
2 एक लाइब्रेरी मुश्किल है।	जहाँ	—	1	2 A library book	Where	Where	—	1	Where	—
3 लेकिन कम्प्यूटर किया है।	लेकिन	—	1	3 But the computer easy	But	But	—	1	But	—
4 बुक कोड मिल जाती है।	बाद	—	1	4 When we card	When, after	After	When	2	When	—
5 लाइब्रेरी चीज है।	तथा	—	1	5 Library card is of a book	That, and	And	That	2	And	—

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $5 (L1) + 5 (L2) = 10$       5. Additional linking devices in L2: 2
2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 6      6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 6
3. Additional linking devices in L1: 0      7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 6
4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 8      8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

**Table 10**

## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices in L2 writing

Name of the student: Dhanraj Sharma      Class: XI<sup>th</sup>      Mother tongue: Hindi  
Narrative Writing Task: A ghost story.

L1 Script

L2 Script

Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1 एक बार जिक्र किया।	और, बाद	—	2	1 One day their lives	And, and	And, after	And	3	And, after	—
2 उनमें से वर्णन किया	और	—	1	2 One of them story	And	And	—	1	And	—
3 उसने कहा देखा।	कि, जब	—	2	3 He said the wall	That, when, and	That, when	And	3	That, when	—
4 यह उसे बहा गया।	जहा	—	1	4 discover market etc	Where, like	Where	Like	2	Where	—
5 उसने एक दिन हो गया।	कि	—	1	5 And he invisible	And, that	That	And	2	That	—
6 अगले दिन हो गया	कि, और	—	2	6 He told disappeared	That, and	That, and	—	2	That, and	—

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $6(L1) + 6(L2) = 12$
2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 9
3. Additional linking devices in L1: 0
4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 13
5. Additional linking devices in L2: 4
6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 9
7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 9
8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

**Table 11**

## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices in L2 writing

Name of the student: Dhanraj Sharma      Class: XI11th      Mother tongue: Hindi  
Expository Writing Task: Relations are a nuisance.

### L1 Script

### L2 Script

Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1 यह बड़े आवश्यकताओं से है।	कि, ऐसे, जितना	जितना	3	1 It is needs	That, when, as	That, as	When	3	That, as	—
2 आज मनुष्य होता है	कि	कि	1	2 Today man of life	—	—	—	0	—	—
3 ऐसे मुला दिए हैं।	ऐसे`	—	1	3 Such nature	Such	Such	—	1	Such	—
4 इन्हीं से सामयिकता।	जो	—	1	4 One of life	Which	Which	—	1	Which	—
5 वह मूल मूल गया है।	कि	कि	1	5 Man animal	As	—	As	1	—	—
6 यही कारण है बीमारी है।	यही कारण है कि	—	1	6 That's life	That's the reason, like	That's the reason	Like	2	That's the reason	—
7 अगर आज संकटनी है।	अगर	—	1	7 Even life	Even if	Even if	—	1	Even if	—

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $7(L1) + 7(L2) = 14$

2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 9

3. Additional linking devices in L1: 3

4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 9

5. Additional linking devices in L2: 3

6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 6

7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 6

8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

**Table 12**

### Script 5

Name of Student : Ashraful Abedin

#### Task 1(Descriptive)

چائے بنانے کے لیے پہلے ایک برتن لیتے ہیں پھر اس کے اندر پانی لیتے ہیں۔ پھر اس کو آگ پر تھوڑا گرم کرنے کے بعد اس کے اندر دودھ ڈالتے ہیں جب پانی برتن کے اندر ابلنے لگے۔ اس میں چینی، ادراک اور چائے کی پتی ڈالتے ہیں۔ اس کے بعد اسکو کچھ دیر تک گرم کرتے ہیں تاکہ پتی کارنگ نکل آئے۔ اس کے بعد چائے رتیار ہوگئی۔

#### Making tea

First of all, take a tea pot for making tea then take a little amount of water in to the tea pot. Put the tea pot on the heat and when water gets a little boiled, mix the milk into the water. After this, mix sugar and tealeaves according to the quantity of mixture. After this, give the heat to it so that the colour of tealeaves in the mixture come out. Now tea is ready for drink.

#### Task 2 (Narrative)

۲۶ جولائی ۲۰۰۳ کو جب میں سو رہا تھا تو میری آنکھ اچانک کھلی اور میں نے گھڑی کی طرف دیکھا تو ۳:۳۰ رات کے بجے ہوئے تھے میں باقروم میں گیا اور اس کے بعد میں آکر سونے ہی جا رہا تھا کہ میں نے دیکھا کہ ایک چور ہمارے زینے کی سیڈیوں سے اترنے کی کوشش کر رہا تھا پہلے مجھے لگا کہ میرے پاپا ہیں لیکن وہ کوئی اور تھا۔ ایک پتلا دبلا سہ لڑکا وہ چوری کے مقصد سے ہمارے گھر میں آیا تھا۔ میں نے اس کو دیکھ کر شور مچایا اور وہ میری آواز سن کر فوراً واپس بھگ گیا جب ہم سب لوگ اٹھے تو وہ غائب ہو چکا تھا۔

#### An Interesting incident of life

On 26 July 2003, when I was sleeping that night, I woke up unfortunately and I saw towards the clock there was 3:30 time and after that I visited to the bathroom and in return I was just going to sleep then suddenly I saw that anyone is coming down from downstairs silently. First I thought that he will be my father but he was the other person, a sick and young boy entered into our house with the purpose of stealing. After seeing him, I started

shouting, he ran away immediately. When all the members of my family woke up, we saw that none was there.

### Task 3 (Expository)

آج کل کی تیز دوڑتی بھاگتی زندگی میں کسی کے پاس دوسروں کے لیے وقت نہیں ہے۔ اپنے دوستوں اور پڑوسیوں کو چھوڑ دیں تو انسان کے پاس اپنے رستے داروں کے لیے بھی وقت نہیں ہے۔

پرانے زمانے میں جب کوئی رشتیدار کسی کے گھر جاتا تھا تو اسے اتنی عزت دی جاتی تھی کہ اسے کسی بھی چیز کی کمی محسوس نہ ہو۔ رشتے دار بھی ایک دوسرے کے گھر جانے میں فخر محسوس کرتے تھے۔ لیکن جیسے جیسے وقت بدل رہا ہے ویسے ویسے لوگوں کے خیالات اپنے رشتے داروں کے متعلق بدل رہے ہیں۔ اب دھیرے دھیرے رشتے دار لوگوں کو بوجھ لگنے لگے ہیں۔ اب جب کوئی رشتے دار جیسے چاچا، چاچی، ماما، مامی، وغیرہ کوئی کسی کے گھر جاتا ہے تو لوگ ان کی خاطر کرنے کی جگہ پہلے ہی یہ حساب لگانے بیٹھ جاتا ہے کہ اپنے رشتے داروں پر کتنا فالتو خرچہ آئے گا۔ وہ رشتے دار کے عزت کرنے سے پہلے اپنا بجٹ دیکھنے لگتا ہے۔

اگر ایسا ہی چلتا رہا تو وہ دن زیادہ دور نہیں جب دنیاں سے رشتہ نام کی چیز جڑ سے ختم ہو جائے گی۔ اس دن دنیا بھی ختم ہو جائے گی۔

### Relations are a nuisance

Now-a-day life is so fast that nobody has time for anyone. If we leave our friends and neighbours, anyone does not have time for their relatives like uncle, aunt etc. Long ago when a relative visits someone's house, people thought that it is their privilege to have their relatives. But now a day when relatives visit someone's house, everybody thinks it is this nuisance and financial burden due to the period of stay. If it goes like this time is not for that the word relation will be ended from the world. On that day the world will be end.



## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Ashraf Abdul Abedin

Class: XIth

Mother tongue: Urdu

Descriptive Writing Task: Making tea.

L1 Script Sentence	Linking Devices	Add. LD.	No. LD	L2 Script Corres-ponding Sentence	Linking Devices	Transf-ferred LD	Add. LD	No. of LD	Positive transferred LD	Negative transferred LD
1. چائے پلانے کے لیے۔۔۔۔۔	پہلے، پھر،	-	2	First of all.... tea pot	First of all, then	First of all, then	-	2	First of all, then	-
2. پھر اس کو..... آگ لگے گی۔	پھر، اور، بعد	-	3	Then... the water	Then, after that, when	Then, after that, when	-	3	Then, after that, when	-
3. اس میں..... ڈالتے ہیں۔	اور،	-	1	After this... mixture	After, and, according to	And	After, according to	3	And	-
4. اس کو کچھ دے..... نکل آئے۔	تاکہ، بعد	-	2	Give..... come out	So that, After	So that, After	-	2	So that, After	-
1. Total number of analyzed sentences: 4 (L1) + 4(L2) = 8										
2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 8										
3. Additional linking devices in L1: 0										
4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 10										
5. Additional linking devices in L2: 2										
6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 8										
7. Positive transferred linking devices in L2: 8										
8. Negative transferred linking devices in L2: 0										

Table 13

## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Ashraf Abdul Abedin

Class: XIth

Mother tongue: Urdu

Narrative Writing Task: An interesting incident of your life.

### L1 Script

### L2 Script

Sentence	Linking Devices	Add. linking devices	No. linking devices	Corresponding Sentence	Linking Devices	Transferred linking devices	Add. linking devices	No. of linking devices	Positive transferred linking devices	Negative transferred linking devices
1. چولا ئی... دیاتھا۔	جب، تو، اور اور کہ بعد کہ جب	-	8	On 26 July... downstairs	when, and, and, then, that, afterthat, then, and	when, and, and, then, that, afterthat, then, and	-	8	when, and, and, then, that, afterthat, then, and	-
2. پہلے مجھے... اور تھا۔	لیکن، اور کہ	-	3	First I thought... other person	That, but, and	That, but, and	-	3	That, but, and	-
3. میں نے... بھاگ گیا	اور	اور	1	Seeing him... voice	--	--	--	--	-	-
4. ہم... چکا تھا	جب	-	1	When the all members... disap- peared	When	When	--	1	When	-

- Total number of analyzed sentences:  $4(L1) + 4(L2) = 8$
- Total number of linking devices in L1: 13
- Additional linking devices in L1: 1
- Total number of linking devices in L2: 12
- Additional linking devices in L2: 0
- Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 12
- Positive transferred linking devices in L2: 12
- Negative transferred linking devices in L2: 0

Table 14

## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Ashraf Abdul Abedin				Class: X1th					
Mother tongue: Urdu									
Expository Writing Task: Relations are a nuisance.									
L1 Script			L2 Script						
Sentence	Linking Devices	Add. LD.	No. LD	Corresponding Devices	Transferred LD	Add. LD	No. of LD	Positive transferred LD	Negative transferred LD
1. اپنے نہیں ہے۔	اور، تو	-	2	If we... count etc. then, like	And, then	If, like	4	And, then	-
2. پرانے... نہ ہو۔	جب، کہ تو، بھی	-	4	Long ago... relatives then, too	When, that, then, too	-	4	When, that, then, too	-
3. لیکن... بل رہے ہیں۔	لیکن، جیسے جیسے... دیے دیے	جیسے جیسے... دیے دیے	2	But... stay when, and, and	But, and	When, and	4	But, and	-
4. اگر ایسا ہو جائے گی۔	اگر، تو، جب	تو	3	If it... world that, when	If, when	That, like	4	If, when	-
1. Total number of analyzed sentences: 4 (L1) + 4 (L2) = 8						5. Additional linking devices in L2: 7			
2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 11						6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 9			
3. Additional linking devices in L1: 2						7. Positive transferred linking devices in L2: 9			
4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 16						8. Negative transferred linking devices in L2: 0			

Table 15

## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Mohit Sharma Class: XIth Mother tongue: Hindi

Descriptive Writing Task: Getting a book issued from library

L1 Script L2 Script

Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1 सर्वप्रथम आता है।	सर्वप्रथम, और जोकि,	—	3	1 First of all from library	First of all, and, which	First of all, and, which	—	3	First of all, and, which	—
2 अब उन्हें देने को कहें।	अब, और, और	—	3	2 Give it You	And, now, which, and	Now, and, and	Which	4	Now, and, and	—
3 वह आये।	और	—	1	3 He will take it	And	And	—	1	And	—

1. Total number of analyzed sentences, 3 (L1) + 3 (L2) = 6

2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 7

3. Additional linking devices in L1: 0

4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 8

5. Additional linking devices in L2: 1

6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 7

7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 7

8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

Table 16

**Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing**  
 Name of the student: Mohit Sharma      Class: XI<sup>th</sup>      Mother tongue: Hindi  
 Narrative Writing Task: An accident  
 L1 Script      L2 Script

Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1 जब मैं जा रहा था।	जब	—	1	1 When I school	When	When	—	1	When	—
2 अचानक मैंने लगने लगा	कि, जैसे ही	—	2	2 I saw to me	That, as	That, as	—	2	That, as	—
3 परन्तु मैं बच गया।	परन्तु, और	—	2	3 But in any saved	But, and	But, and	—	2	But, and	—
4 लेकिन थोड़ा सुनाई दी	लेकिन, व	—	2	4 But after baby	But, after, and	But, and	After	3	But, and	—
5 लेकिन थोड़ा सुनाई दी	और	—	1	5 Thus nation	And	And	—	1	And	—

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $5(L1) + 5(L2) = 10$       5. Additional linking devices in L2: 1  
 2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 8      6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 8  
 3. Additional linking devices in L1: 0      7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 8  
 4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 9      8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

Table 17

**Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing**  
 Name of the student: Mohit Sharma      Class: XIth      Mother tongue: Hindi  
**Expository Writing Task: Exploring the past is a purposeless activity.**  
 L1 Script      L2 Script

Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1 Exploring का काम है।	और, और कि	—	3	1 Exploring past	That, and, and	That, and, and	—	3	That, and, and	—
2 लेकिन आज नहीं है।	लेकिन	—	1	2 But so	But, according to, so	But	According to, so	3	But	—
3 वह अपने मिलता है।	क्योंकि, इतना, कि, ऐसी	—	4	3 As this works	As, as, because, that	As, as, because, that	—	4	As, as, because, that	—
4 परन्तु एक रहे हैं।	परन्तु, नी, अगर, तो	—	4	4 But this time	But, also, as, if, which	But, also, if	Which, as	5	But, also, if	—
5 कई कपियो रखे हैं।	जैसे	—	1	5 Many over it	For example, which	For example	Which	2	For example	—

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $5(L1) + 5(L2) = 10$       5. Additional linking devices in L2: 5
2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 13      6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 12
3. Additional linking devices in L1: 0      7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 12
4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 17      8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

**Table 18**

## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Shashank Shrivastava

Class: XIth Mother tongue: Hindi

Descriptive Writing Task: Getting a book issued from library

L1 Script

L2 Script

Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1. सर्वप्रथम .. होता है।	सर्वप्रथम, लिए, जो कि	जो	4	1 First of all.... librarian.	First of all, for, that	First of all, for, that	—	3	First of all, for, that	—
2 फिर उस.. होता है।	फिर	—	1	2. Then.....librarian an.	Then, which	Then	Which	2	Then	—
3 अगर.. सकते हैं।	अगर, जो, जो	तो	3	3. If they..... book.	If, also	If, also	—	2	If, also	—
4 इसके पर्याप्त... लेता है।	इसके पर्याप्त	—	1	4 Then... card.	Then, and	Then	And	2	Then	—
5 और इस ... लिए	और, इस तरह	—	2	5 After that... time	After that, and, as	And, as	After that	3	And, as	—

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $5 (L1) + 5 (L2) = 10$

2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 11

3. Additional linking devices in L1: 2

4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 12

5. Additional linking devices in L2: 3

6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 9

7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 9

8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

**Table 19**

## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Shashank Shrivastava

Class: XIth Mother tongue: Hindi

Narrative Writing Task: A ghost story.

L1 Script

L2 Script

Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1. इस मामले... हुई थी	जब, तो, कि	तो	3	1. I went.... that matter.	When, that	When, that	—	2	When, that	—
2. मेरे कुछ .. रही थी।	ची, कि	—	2	2. Some...activities.	Also, that	Also, that	—	2	Also, that	—
3 अधिक पूछने .. लगी।	कि जब, तो, अतः	तो	4	3. On interrogating... reading	That, when, and, so	That, when, so	And	4	That, when, so	—
4 कुछ देर बाद... गयी।	और, कि	—	2	4 Suddenly...that fan	And, that, and, and	And, that	And and	4	And, that	—
5 इस की जानता है।	तो	तो	1	5 The reality know	—	—	—	—	—	—

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $5(L1) + 5(L2) = 10$

2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 12

3. Additional linking devices in L1: 3

4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 12

5. Additional linking devices in L2: 3

6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 9

7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 9

8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

Table 20



## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Shashank Shrivastava      Class: X1th      Mother tongue: Hindi

Expository Writing Task: Exploring the past is a purposeless activity.

L1 Script      L2 Script

Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1. इस के द्वारा ... जानता।	इसके द्वारा, जिसके	—	2	1 By exploring non-familiar	By which, which	By which, which	—	2	By which, which	—
2 अगर मनुष्य करते हैं।	अगर, तो	तो	2	2 If a person past	If, and	If	And	2	If	—
3 जो भीत बराबर है।	जो, और, जो	—	3	3 The past foolishness.	Which, which and,	Which, and, which	—	3	Which, and, which	—
4 भीता हुआ बेवकूफी है।	इसलिए	—	1	4 Past about it	So	So	—	1	So	—
5 हमने आपने चाहिए।	और	—	1	5 We future	And	And	—	1	And	—
6 पर इतना होती है।	पर, इतना, जो	—	3	6 But past	But, which, so	But, which, so	—	3	But, which, so	—

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $6(L1) + 6(L2) = 12$
2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 12
3. Additional linking devices in L1: 1
4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 12
5. Additional linking devices in L2: 1
6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 11
7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 11
8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

**Table 21**

## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Javed Akhter Ansari

Class: XI11th Mother tongue: Hindi

Descriptive Writing Task: Making tea.

L1 Script			L2 Script							
Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additi onal linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additi onal linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1 चाय चीनी नहीं है।	भगर	—	1	1 To drink for everyone	But	But	—	1	But	—
2 सबसे पहले देख दे।	सबसे पहले, और, फिर	—	3	2 Firstly the gas	Firstly, then, and	Firstly, then, and	—	3	Firstly, then, and	—
3 बर्तन में उबलने दे।	और, फिर	—	2	3 Put hot	And, then, until	And, then	Until	3	And, then	—
4 उसके बाद डाले।	बाद, और	—	2	4 After that water	After, and	After, and	—	2	After, and	—
5 थोड़ी देर बाद कर डाले।	बाद, जब	—	2	5 Then add tea	Then, after, when	After, when	Then	3	After, when	—
6 चाय के दिलाए।	बाद, और	—	2	6 After guest	After, and, then	After, and	Then	3	After, and	—

- Total number of analyzed sentences:  $6 (L1) + 6 (L2) = 12$
- Total number of linking devices in L1: 12
- Additional linking devices in L1: 0
- Total number of linking devices in L2: 15
- Additional linking devices in L2: 3
- Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 12
- Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 12
- Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

**Table 22**

## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Javed Akhter Ansari  
Narrative Writing Task: An accident

Class: XI11th Mother tongue: Hindi

### L1 Script

### L2 Script

Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1. हम लोग... जा मिठा	कि, और	कि	2	1. We were.... Tata Sumo.	And	And	—	1	And	—
2. मेरे माई... का गिरा।	जो, और, मगर, और	जो, और, मगर	4	2. My elder... far away.	And	And	—	1	And	—
3. लोगों ने... टालना पड़ा	और, जहाँ	जहाँ	2	3. A mob... Aligarh.	And	And	—	1	And	—
4. और मैं... दखिल हो गया	और, और, और	—	3	4. And I... admission	And, and, and	And, and, and	—	3	And, and, and	—

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $4(L1) + 4(L2) = 8$

2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 11

3. Additional linking devices in L1: 5

4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 6

5. Additional linking devices in L2: 0

6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 6

7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 6

8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

Table 23

## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Javed Akhter Ansari      Class: XIth      Mother tongue: Hindi  
Expository Writing Task: Exploring the past is a purposeless activity.  
L1 Script      L2 Script

Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1 मैं ऊपरलिखित नहीं हूँ।	कि, क्योंकि, जिसकी	—	3	1 I am neglect	That, because, which	That, because, which	—	3	That, because, which	—
2 इतिहास कार्य है।	अर्थात्, एवं	अर्थात्	2	2 Exploring culture	Not only but also, or	Or	Not only but also	2	Or	—
3 उदाहरण के रहेगा।	उदाहरण के अनुसार, जो, और	उदाहरण के अनुसार	3	3 Take example to be	Which, and, and	Which, and,	And	3	Which, and,	—
4 इतिहास हमें करती है।	बल्कि	—	1	4 History truth	But	But	—	1	But	—
5 अतः अतः में आवश्यक है।	अतः, एवं, कि, एवं, बल्कि, अतः	कि, एवं, बल्कि,	6	5 Thus nation	Thus, and, but	Thus, and, but	—	3	Thus, and, but	—

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $5(L1) + 5(L2) = 10$
2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 15
3. Additional linking devices in L1: 5
4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 12
5. Additional linking devices in L2: 2
6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 10
7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 10
8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

**Table 24**

## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Md. Faridul Haque      Class: XIth      Mother tongue: Hindi  
**Descriptive Writing Task: Making tea.**

L1 Script				L2 Script			
Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices
1 चाय बनाने रख देते हैं।	और, बाद	—	2	1 To make gas stove	First, and, after	And, after	First
2 जब पानी डालते हैं।	जब, तो, और	—	3	2 When the water it	When, and, then	When, then, and	—
3 जब यह डाल देते हैं।	जब, और, तो	तो	3	3 When it in it	When, and	When, and	—
4 जब यह हो जाती है।	जब, और, तो	तो	3	4 After that water	When, and	When, and	—

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $4(L1) + 4(L2) = 8$   
2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 11  
3. Additional linking devices in L1: 2  
4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 10  
5. Additional linking devices in L2: 1  
6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 9  
7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 8  
8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 1

**Table 25**

# Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Md. Faridul Haque

Class: XIth

Mother tongue: Hindi

## Narrative Writing Task: An accident

### L1 Script

### L2 Script

Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1 रास्ते में, दहला दें।	जो	जो	1	1 When you accident	When, if	—	When, if	2	—	—
2 दिल्ली से गए थे।	कि, और	—	2	2 When I on the spot	When, that, and	That, and	When	3	That, and	—
3 वहाँ से हुई होगी।	के कारण, परन्तु, जो	—	3	3 Due to last breath	Due to, but, who	Due to, but, who	—	3	Due to, but, who	—
4 यह सब चला रहा था।	के कारण, और	—	2	4 accident swiftly	Due to, which, and	Due to, and	Which	3	Due to, and	—
5 ऐसा म्यानक न देखू।	ऐसा, और, कि	—	3	5 I have again	Such, and, that	Such, and, that	—	3	Such, and, that	—

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $5(L1) + 5(L2) = 10$

2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 11

3. Additional linking devices in L1: 1

4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 14

5. Additional linking devices in L2: 4

6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 10

7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 10

8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

Table 26

**Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing**  
 Name of the student: Md. Faridul Haque Class: XIth Mother tongue: Hindi  
**Expository Writing Task: Exploring the past is a purposeless activity.**  
 L1 Script L2 Script

Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1 मृतकाल कार्य है।	और	—	1	1 Exploring done	And, and	And	And	2	And	—
2 मृतकाल महत्वपूर्ण है।	और, जिससे	—	2	2 Our past important	And, and, on which	And, on which	And	3	And, on which	—
3 यदि हम होता था।	यदि, किस्तर्ह, तो, और	—	4	3 If we lifestyle	If, like, and, and, how, what, and, how, then, and	If, and, how, then	Like, what, and, how, and, and	10	If, and, how, then	—
4 यदि कर पाते।	यदि, तो, और, और	—	4	4 exploring animals	If, and, then, and, as	If, and, then, and	As	5	If, and, then, and	—
5 आज हम बताया है।	और, कि	—	2	5 Today monkeys	As, that, and	That, and	As	3	That, and	—
6 यद्यपि दर्पण है।	यद्यपि, परन्तु, क्योंकि, और	—	4	6 Even though from it	Even though, but, and, that, as, because	Even though, because, but, and	As, that	6	Even though, because, but, and	—

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $6(L1) + 6(L2) = 12$       5. Additional linking devices in L2: 12
2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 17      6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 17
3. Additional linking devices in L1: 0      7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 17
4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 29      8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

**Table 27**

## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Deepika Bansal      Class: XIth      Mother tongue: Hindi  
Descriptive Writing Task: Getting a book issued from the library.

L1 Script      L2 Script

Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Addition al linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Addition al linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1 एक किताब चाहिए	सर्वप्रथम, एवं	—	2	1 To get catalogue	First of all, and	First of all, and	—	2	First of all, and	—
2 तत्पश्चात् उक्त पुस्तक देना है।	तत्पश्चात्	—	1	2 Secondly in a paper	Secondly, after	After	Secondly	2	After	—
3 पुस्तक के आने थमाना।	बाद	—	1	3 After that demand	After, according to	After	According to	2	After	—
4 उसके बाद छोड़ना चाहिए।	बाद, बाद, बाद, एवं	—	4	4 After this return date	After, and, which, and, after, after	After, after, after, and	And, which	6	After, after, after, and	—

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $4(L1) + 4(L2) = 8$
2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 8
3. Additional linking devices in L1: 0
4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 12
5. Additional linking devices in L2: 4
6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 8
7. Total number of positive transferred linking devices: 8
8. Total number of negative transferred linking devices: 0

Table 28



## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Deepika Bansal      Class: X1th      Mother tongue: Hindi

Narrative Writing Task: An interesting incident of your life.

L1 Script

L2 Script

Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1. वह इतना मुसकराता।	इतना, कि, तो	—	3	1 He was others	So, that, and, then	So, that, then	And	4	So, that, then	—
2 लेकिन कुछ चोरी तो गया।	लेकिन, जब, और, जब, तो	जब, तो	5	2 But sad	But, and, then, that, and	But, and, then,	That, and	5	But, and, then,	—
3 और अब नहीं थे।	और, कि, इतने	—	3	3 And now so happy	And, that, so	And, that, so	—	3	And, that, so	—
4 सभी आती बताते हैं।	तब, और	—	2	4 Passengers laugh	That, but, then, and	Then, and	That, but	4	Then, and	—

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $4(L1) + 4(L2) = 8$
2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 13
3. Additional linking devices in L1: 2
4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 16
5. Additional linking devices in L2: 5
6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 11
7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 11
8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

Table 29

## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Deepika Bansal      Class: XIth      Mother tongue: Hindi

**Expository Writing Task: Relations are a nuisance**

L1 Script

L2 Script

Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1 फिर जैसे जैसे जाते हैं।	फिर, जैसे-जैसे	फिर	2	1 As he neighbours	As as	As as	—	1	As as	—
2 कोई भी पढ़ते हैं।	इसलिए	—	1	2 No one relations	So	So	—	1	So	—
3 अगर जाते हैं।	अगर,	—	1	3 Nowadays him	If	If,	—	1	If	—
4 इसलिए सकता है।	इसलिए, भी	भी	2	4 So him	So	So	—	1	So	—
5 इसलिए सकता है।	इसलिए	—	1	5 So we relations	So, only	So	Only	2	So	—

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $5(L1) + 5(L2) = 10$

2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 7

3. Additional linking devices in L1: 2

4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 6

5. Additional linking devices in L2: 1

6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 5

7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 5

8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

Table 30

## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Ishant Kumar      Class: X Ith      Mother tongue: Hindi  
 Descriptive Writing Task: Getting a book issued from the library.

L1 Script				L2 Script						
Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1. पुस्तकालय ... सकते हैं।	क्योंकि, बाद	-	2	1. First of all...a book	First of all, after, because	Because, after	First of all	3	Because, after	-
2. सर्वप्रथम... समझते हैं।	सर्वप्रथम, और, और जिसे	-	4	2. For this....need.	First of all, and, and, which	First of all, and, and, which	-	4	First of all, and, and, which	-
3. उदाहरणार्थ यदि... निकाले।	उदाहरणार्थ, यदि, तो	-	3	3. For example...book.	For example, If, and	For example, If, and	-	3	For example, If, and	-
4. तत्पश्चात... कर दे।	तत्पश्चात, बाद	-	2	4. Then after....date.	Then, after	Then, after	-	2	Then, after	-

- Total number of analyzed sentences:  $4(L1) + 4(L2) = 8$
- Total number of linking devices in L1: 11
- Additional linking devices in L1: 0
- Total number of linking devices in L2: 12
- Additional linking devices in L2: 1
- Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 11
- Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 11
- Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

Table 31

## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Ishant Kumar      Class: XIth      Mother tongue: Hindi  
**Narrative Writing Task: A ghost story.**  
L1 Script      L2 Script

Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1 काकी पुराने नजदीक था।	जिस, जो	जिस	2	1 So many them	And, who	Who	And	2	Who	—
2 पति का नाम मारिया था।	और	—	1	2 The name Maria	And	And	—	1	And	—
3 जान व्यस्त रहती था।	जबकि, जो	—	2	3 John was housewife	And, while, which	While, which	And	3	While, which	—
4 दोनों पति पत्नी मोत हो गयी।	तभी, तो	तभी, तो	2	4 One-day road accident	When	—	When	1	—	—
5 भूत बनने चाहता था।	बाद, जब, कि, तो, और	तो	5	5 After becoming property	After, when, that, and	After, when, that, and	—	4	After, when, that, and	—

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $5(L1) + 5(L2) = 10$
2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 12
3. Additional linking devices in L1: 4
4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 11
5. Additional linking devices in L2: 3
6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 8
7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 8
8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

**Table 32**

## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Ishant Kumar      Class: XI<sup>th</sup>      Mother tongue: Hindi  
Expository Writing Task: Hypocrisy is a virtue.

### L1 Script

### L2 Script

Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1. हल ...चाहिए	क्योंकि, हेतु	-	2	1. Hypocrisy... a man	Because, for	Because, for	-	2	Because, for	-
2 उपयुक्त कथन.. होता है।	क्योंकि	-	1	2. Here... every person	As, because	Because	As	2	Because	-
3 उनके लिए होता है।	व	-	1	3 For them... easy.	And	And	-	1	And	-
4 मनुष्य यदि करता है।	यदि, एवं	-	2	4. If a man hypocrisy	If, and, that, as	If, and	As, that	4	If, and	-
5 इस कार्य चाहिए	एवं, सी.	-	2	5 A man important	Also, and	Also, and	-	2	Also, and	-

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $5(L1) + 5(L2) = 10$
2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 8
3. Additional linking devices in L1: 0
4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 11
5. Additional linking devices in L2: 3
6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 8
7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 8
8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

**Table 33**

## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Ibrar Ahmed Siddiqui  
Descriptive Writing Task: Making tea.

Class: X1th

Mother tongue: Hindi

L1 Script

L2 Script

Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1 इसके बाद रखते हैं।	बाद	—	1	1 After then water	After, then	After	Then	2	After	—
2 जब पानी देते हैं।	जब, और, तो	तो	4	2 When tea	When, and	When, and	—	3	When, and	—
3 जब मिश्रण देते हैं।	जब, तो, और	—	2	3 When mixture milk	When, then, and	When, then, and	—	2	When, and	Then
4 अब इस लेते हैं।	और, जब, तब	तब	3	4 When this in cups	When, and	When and	—	2	When, and	—

1. Total number of analyzed sentences: 4 (L1) + 4 (L2) = 8

2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 10

3. Additional linking devices in L1: 2

4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 9

5. Additional linking devices in L2: 1

6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 8

7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 7

8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 1

Table 34

## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Ibrar Ahmed Siddiqui  
Narrative Writing Task: An accident

Class: XIth

Mother tongue: Hindi

L1 Script

L2 Script

Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1 एक बार मार दिया।	जब, तो, तभी, भी, तो	तो, तो	5	1 One work	When, also, then	When, also, then	—	3	When, also, then	—
2 मैं तो चुका था।	तो, मगर, और	—	3	2 Then I road	Then, but, and	Then, but, and	—	3	Then, but, and	—
3 मैं इस हुआ था।	के वजह से, तभी, भी, और, इसलिए,	—	5	3 Due to 9th class	Due to, then, And, therefore, also	Due to, then, also, and, therefore	—	5	Due to, then, also, and, therefore	—
4 मैं यही चलते हैं।	कि	—	1	4 I think careless	That, which, that	That	Which, that	3	That	—

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $4(L1) + 4(L2) = 8$

2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 14

3. Additional linking devices in L1: 2

4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 14

5. Additional linking devices in L2: 2

6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 12

7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 12

8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

Table 35

## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Ibrar Ahmed Siddiqui

Class: XIth

Mother tongue: Hindi

**Narrative Writing Task:** Exploring the past is a purposeless activity.

L1 Script

L2 Script

Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1 मैं उपरलिखित अवसरक हे।	कि, परन्तु, और	—	3	1 I am about it.	That, because, and, that, but	That, and, but	That, because	5	That, and, but	—
2 हम अगर रह जाएंगे।	अगर, तो	—	2	2 If we for it.	If, and, then	If, then	And	3	If, then	—
3 इन कार्यों होती है।	और, के कारण	—	2	3 Their activities it	And, due to	And, due to	—	2	And, due to	—
4 अगर मिल जाएगा।	अगर, तो, जैसी	—	3	4 If we existence	If, then, as	If, then, as	—	3	If, then, as	—
5 इसलिए सीख ले।	इसलिए, कि	—	2	5 That's why it	That's why, and that	That's why, that	And	3	That's why, and, that	—
6 अगर हम पसन्द करेंगे।	अगर, तो, और	—	3	6 If we forget	If, and, then	If, and, then	—	3	If, and, then	—

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $6(L1) + 6(L2) = 12$

2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 15

3. Additional linking devices in L1: 0

4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 19

5. Additional linking devices in L2: 4

6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 15

7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 15

8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

**Table 36**



## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Ashok Priya Gautam      Class: XIth      Mother tongue: Hindi  
**Descriptive Writing Task: Making tea.**

L1 Script			L2 Script							
Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Addition al linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferr ed linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1. घाय बनाने... लेंगे।	सबसे पहले	—	1	1. To make...tea.	First of all, in which	First of all	In which	2	First of all	—
2 अब पानी... रखेंगे।	अब, या	—	2	2. Now.....store.	Now, or	Now, or	—	2	Now, or	—
3. बर्तन में... होने देंगे।	फिर	—	1	3. When the water...water.	When, then	Then	When	2	Then	—
4. कुछ देर... डालेंगे।	बाद, तथा, बाद	—	3	4. After some...like.	After, and, as, after	After, and, after	As	4	After, and, after	—
5 अच्छी तरह... डालेंगे	बाद, जिससे	—	2	5. After boiling...in ketali.	After, now, and, which	After, which	Now, and	4	After, which	—

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $5 (L1) + 5 (L2) = 10$       5. Additional linking devices in L2: 5  
 2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 9      6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 9  
 3. Additional linking devices in L1: 0      7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 9  
 4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 14      8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

Table 37

## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Ashok Priya Gautam  
Narrative Writing Task: An accident

Class: X1th Mother tongue: Hindi

### L1 Script

### L2 Script

Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1 उनकी गाड़ी रो गया।	मगर	—	1	1 There was fractured	But	But	—	1	But	—
2 स्त्री डाक्टर निपट गयी।	मगर	—	1	2 Lady doctor dressing	But	But	—	1	But	—
3 इस टक्कर चला रही थी।	कि	—	1	3 The main cause wrong side	That	That	—	1	That	—
4 वह एक पूरी तरह किया।	और	—	1	4 She was me	And	And	—	1	And	—

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $4(L1) + 4(L2) = 8$
2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 4
3. Additional linking devices in L1: 0
4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 4
5. Additional linking devices in L2: 0
6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 4
7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 4
8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

**Table 38**

## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Ashok Priya Gautam      Class: X1th      Mother tongue: Hindi  
Expository Writing Task: Relations are a nuisance.

### L1 Script

### L2 Script

Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1 रिश्ते कभी जरूरत है।	क्योंकि, और	—	2	1 Relations s	As, and, because	And, because	As	3	And, because	—
2 हमारा पहला बॉस है।	जो, जोकि, और कि	—	4	2 Our first a nuisance	Who, which, that, and	Who, which, that, and	—	4	Who, which, that, and	—
3 रिश्ते छोटा है।	जो, तथा	—	2	3 Relations shallow heart	Who, and	Who, and	—	2	For, who, and	—
4 रिश्ते करते हैं।	अगर, तो, भी	तो, भी	3	4 Relations god	When, as, if	If	When, As as	3	If	—
5 अगर हम नहीं हो	अगर, कि, जब, तब, तो	तब, तो	5	5 If we no relations	If, that, or, when, when	If, that, when	Or, when	5	If, that, when	—

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $5 (L1) + 5 (L2) = 10$       5. Additional linking devices in L2: **5**
2. Total number of linking devices in L1: **16**      6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: **12**
3. Additional linking devices in L1: **4**      7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: **12**
4. Total number of linking devices in L2: **17**      8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: **0**

**Table 39**

**Name of the student:** Naima Khanam  
**Class:** X1th  
**Mother tongue:** Hindi  
**Descriptive Writing Task:** Making tea.

L1 Script L2 Script

Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additi onal linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additi onal linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1 चाय बनाने सकते हैं।	जिनके	—	1	1 There are tea	Which	Which	—	1	Which	—
2 सबसे पहले डालते हैं।	सबसे पहले, बाद, और	—	3	2 First of all needed	First of all, then, and	First of all, then, and	—	3	First of all, then, and	—
3 फिर इन पदार्थों करते हैं	फिर, बाद	—	1	3 After it fire	After	After	—	1	After	—
4 तथा बीच में कर लेते हैं	तथा, तो, और	—	3	4 And due to drink	And, due to, or, when, and, then	And, then, and	Due to, or, when	6	And, then, and	—
5 इस तरह करते हैं	इस तरह	—	1	5 Thus tea	Thus	Thus	—	1	Thus	—

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $5(L1) + 5(L2) = 10$

2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 9

3. Additional linking devices in L1: 0

#### 4. Total number of linking devices in L2.

## 5. Additional linking devices in L2: 3

6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 9

7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 9

8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

Table 40

## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Naima Khanam

Class: Xlth

Mother tongue: Hindi

**Narrative Writing Task: An accident**

L1 Script

L2 Script

Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1 26 जनवरी का दिन शहीद हुए।	जो, और क्योंकि, व	जो, और व	4	1 26 Jan their life	Because	Because,	—	1	Because,	—
2 लेकिन 26 जनवरी जान गई	लेकिन, क्योंकि और	—	3	2 But 26 Jan injured	But, and, because	But, because, and	—	3	But, because, and	—
3 लोगो से मानने लगे।	और, क्योंकि	—	2	3 People Gujarat	And, because	And, because	—	2	And, because	—
4 अब भी निकल आते हैं तो	तो	—	1	4 people cry Today	Then	Then	—	1	Then	—

- Total number of analyzed sentences:  $4(L1) + 4(L2) = 8$
- Total number of linking devices in L1: 10
- Additional linking devices in L1: 3
- Total number of linking devices in L2: 7
- Additional linking devices in L2: 0
- Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 7
- Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 7
- Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

**Table 41**

## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Naima Khanam      Class: X1th      Mother tongue: Hindi  
**Expository Writing Task:** Exploring the past is a purposeless activity.

### L1 Script

### L2 Script

Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1 इतिहास ही जान सकते हैं	ऐसी, जिससे	—	2	1 History the past	Such, only, by which	Such, by which	Only	3	Such, by which	—
2 अतीत काल नायुमकिन	लेकिन, ऐसे, जिन्हें	—	3	2 But the past	But, such, which	But, such, which	—	3	But, such, which	—
3 इससे हम अविष्कार कर रहा है।	और, और	—	2	3 By exploring of past	And, as well as, and	And, and	As well as	3	And, and	—
4 यदि इतिहास का पाती।	यदि, तो, इतनी	तो, इतनी	3	4 If we that much	If, and	If	And	2	If	—
5 आज के दौर जाते थे।	जो	—	1	5 The things only	Which, only	Which	Only	2	Which	—

- |   |  |
|---|--|
| 1. Total number of analyzed sentences: $5(L1) + 5(L2) = 10$ | 5. Additional linking devices in L2: 4                       |
| 2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 11                | 6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 9      |
| 3. Additional linking devices in L1: 2                      | 7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 9 |
| 4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 13                | 8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0 |

**Table 42**

## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Shaista Parveen      Class: XIth      Mother tongue: Hindi  
 Descriptive Writing Task: Getting a book issued from library

L1 Script				L2 Script						
Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1 सर्वप्रथम जाता है।	सर्वप्रथम, और	—	3	1 First of all from library	First of all, and, which	First of all, and, which	—	3	First of all, and, which	—
2 अब उन्हें देने को कहे।	अब, और	—	2	2 Give it You	And, now, which	Now, and	Which	3	Now, and	—
3 वह आये।	और	—	1	3 He will take it	And	And	—	1	And	—

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $3 (L1) + 3 (L2) = 6$
2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 6
3. Additional linking devices in L1: 0
4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 7
5. Additional linking devices in L2: 1
6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 6
7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 6
8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

**Table 43**

## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Shaista Parveen  
Narrative Writing Task: An accident

Class: X Ith Mother tongue: Hindi

L1 Script

L2 Script

Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1. यह कितना...देखा।	जब	—	1	1. How it...a scooter.	When	When	—	1	When	—
2. यह पहली बार देखी।	जब, इतनी	—	2	2. It was...accident.	When, as	When, as	—	2	When, as	—
3. स्कूटर चालक... गया।	तथा	—	1	3. The driver...there.	And, who	And	Who	2	And	—
4. उसके बदले ... के जी गयी।	तथा	—	1	4. Information...pursue	And	And	—	1	And	—
5. मैं... पहुँचा	और	—	1	5. I could...his condition.	And	And	—	1	And	—

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $5(L1) + 5(L2) = 10$       5. Additional linking devices in L2: 1  
 2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 6      6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 6  
 3. Additional linking devices in L1: 0      7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 6  
 4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 7      8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

**Table 44**



## Analysis of transfer of L1 linking devices to L2 writing

Name of the student: Shaista Parveen      Class: XIth      Mother tongue: Hindi  
Expository Writing Task: Exploring the past is a purposeless activity.

L1 Script				L2 Script						
Sentence in L1 script	Linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Corresponding sentence in L2 script	Linking devices	Transferred linking devices	Additional linking devices	No of linking devices	Positively transferred linking devices	Negatively transferred linking devices
1 मैं पहचानता हूँ।	क्योंकि	—	1	1 As our past . past	As, and, because	Because	As, and	3	Because	—
2 अगर हम जाता था।	अगर, तो, कि	तो	3	2 If bird	If, that, as	If, that	As	3	If, that	—
3 अगर हम भारत चलता है।	अगर, तो	अगर, तो	2	3 By knowing past	And	—	And	1	—	—
4 इसलिए हमें बनारस।	इसलिए, बल्कि, और, ताकि, और, व	—	6	4 why better That's	That's but, and, so that, as, and, and	That's why, but, so that, and, and	As	7	That's why, but, so that, and, and	—

1. Total number of analyzed sentences:  $4(L1) + 4(L2) = 8$
2. Total number of linking devices in L1: 12
3. Additional linking devices in L1: 3
4. Total number of linking devices in L2: 14
5. Additional linking devices in L2: 5
6. Total number of transferred linking devices in L2: 9
7. Total number of positively transferred linking devices: 9
8. Total number of negatively transferred linking devices: 0

**Table 45**

## APPENDIX II. a.

### Spoken Requests

#### A. Informal situations:

How would you ask:

1. your friend to lend you his/her pen?
2. your parents for money for going on a college tour?

#### B. Formal situations:

How would you request:

1. your teacher for reference materials on a topic?
2. a stranger at the railway station for giving you directions to reach the university?

### Written Requests

#### A. Informal situations:

How will you make a request in writing:

1. to a friend for accompany you on an educational tour?
2. to your parents for allowing you to go on a tour?

#### B. Formal situations:

How will you make a request in writing:

1. to your provost for concession in hostel fee?
2. to a publisher for some text books?

### Spoken Thanks

#### A. Informal situations:

How will you say thanks:

1. to a friend for lending you money for paying your fees?
2. to your father on phone who sent you money for college tour?

#### B. Formal situations:

How would you express your thanks:

1. to your teacher for his/her guidance in your studies?
2. to a stranger for saving you from an accident?

### Written Thanks

#### A. Informal situations:

How would you express your thanks in writing:

1. to a friend for a book which he/she lent to you, and which has changed your life?
2. to your neighbour who looked after your mother in your absence?

#### B. Formal situations:

How would you express your thanks in writing:

1. to your teacher for his/her guidance in your studies?

2. to your provost for fee concession?

### **Spoken Apologies**

#### **A. Informal situations:**

How would you apologize:

1. to a friend for not being able to attend his/her birthday party?
2. to your mother for misbehaving with her?

#### **B. Formal situations:**

How would you apologize:

1. to your teacher for being late for the class?
2. to your warden for violating a rule of hostel?

### **Written Apologies**

#### **A. Informal situations:**

How will you apologize in writing:

1. to your friend when you have lost his/her book which he/she lent to you?
2. to your mother when you have misbehaved with her?

#### **B. Formal situations:**

How will you apologize in writing:

1. to your proctor after having beaten another student?
2. to the publisher of a book for not having made the payment on time?

### **Spoken Greetings**

#### **A. Informal situations:**

How would you greet:

1. your friend when you meet him in the morning?
2. your parents after reaching home from the hostel?

#### **B. Formal situations:**

What do you say in greeting:

1. to your teacher before the class?
2. to a stranger in a train to whom you want to talk?

### **Written Greetings**

#### **A. Informal situations:**

How would you write your greetings:

1. in a letter to your sister?
2. in a letter to your friend?

#### **B. Formal situations:**

How would you write your greetings:

1. in a letter to your provost?
2. in a letter to the editor of a newspaper?

## Spoken Leave-takings

### A. Informal situations:

How will you say good bye:

1. to a friend after the class?
2. to your parents when you are leaving home?

### B. Formal situations:

How will you say good bye:

1. to your warden when vacating the hostel?
2. to your teacher after the class?

## Written Leave-takings

### A. Informal situations:

How would you take leave:

1. in a letter to your friend?
2. in a letter to your father?

### B. Formal situations:

How would you take leave:

1. in a letter to your teacher?
2. in a letter to the manager of a company?

## APPENDIX II. b.

### Interview 1

## Spoken Requests

How would you ask:

1. your friend to lend you his/her pen?  
**Response:** You have to go with me.
2. your parents for money for going on a college tour?

**Response:** Please allow me for college tour.

How would you request:

3. your teacher for reference materials on a topic?  
**Response:** Mam, kindly give me concession in hostel fees.
4. a stranger at the railway station for giving you directions to reach the university?  
**Response:** Respected sir, would you send some text books related to my course.

## Spoken Thanks

How will you say thanks:

1. to a friend for lending you money for paying your fees?  
**Response:** Thanks.
2. to your father on phone who sent you money for college tour  
**Response:** Thank you papa for sending money.

How would you express your thanks:

3. to your teacher for his/her guidance in your studies?

**Response:** Thank you madam.

4. to a stranger for saving you from an accident?

**Response:** Thank you saving from an accident.

### **Spoken Apologies**

How would you apologize:

1. to a friend for not being able to attend his/her birthday party?

**Response:** I am so sorry.

2. to your mother for misbehaving with her?

**Response:** I am very much sorry.

How would you apologize:

3. to your teacher for being late for the class?

**Response:** Sorry Ma'am, I would try not to be late in class again.

4. to your warden for violating a rule of hostel?

**Response:** I am sorry. I would not violate the rules of hostel.

### **Spoken Greetings**

How would you greet:

1. your friend when you meet him in the morning?

**Response:** Hi!

2. your parents after reaching home from the hostel?

**Response:** Assalam-alaykum!

What do you say in greeting:

3. to your teacher before the class?

**Response:** Good morning, sir!

4. to a stranger in a train to whom you want to talk?

**Response:** Hello, what is your name!

### **Spoken Leave-takings**

How will you say good bye:

1. to a friend after the class?

**Response:** Bye!

2. to your parents when you are leaving home?

**Response:** Assalam-alaykum!

How will you say good bye:

3. to your warden when vacating the hostel?

**Response:** Khuda hafiz, assalam-alaykum

4. to your teacher after the class?

**Response:** Bye!

## **Interview 2**

### **Spoken Requests**

How would you ask:

1. your friend to lend you his/her pen?

**Response:** Please accompany me on an educational tour.

2. your parents for money for going on a college tour?

**Response:** Please, please allow for college tour.

How would you request:

3. your teacher for reference materials on a topic?

**Response:** Mam, please give me concession in hostel fees.

4. a stranger at the railway station for giving you directions to reach the university?

**Response:** Please send some text books.

### Spoken Thanks

How will you say thanks:

1. to a friend for lending you money for paying your fees?

**Response:** If you had not paid my fee, it would be impossible to get hall ticket. So thank you very much.

2. to your father on phone who sent you money for college tour

**Response:** I am so happy and excited for going on college tour and you have paid for me. Thank you.

How would you express your thanks:

3. to your teacher for his/her guidance in your studies?

**Response:** Thank you sir. It was impossible to get success without your help. Your guidance is excellent.

4. to a stranger for saving you from an accident?

**Response:** Really, really thankful for saving my life because life is a precious gift and you saved me from an accident so I am really, really grateful to you.

### Spoken Apologies

How would you apologize:

1. to a friend for not being able to attend his/her birthday party?

**Response:** Sorry dear please. I could not attend your birthday party due to some reasons. You can understand the basic reason of not attending the party.

2. to your mother for misbehaving with her?

**Response:** She can understand my feeling. I apologize and I would never repeat it and forgive me

How would you apologize:

3. to your teacher for being late for the class?

**Response:** Sorry for being late and I did not get rickshaw.

4. to your warden for violating a rule of hostel?

**Response:** Extremely sorry sir. It was my fault. I made my friend stay without your permission because she had no place in Aligarh.

### Spoken Greetings

How would you greet:

1. your friend when you meet him in the morning?

**Response:** Welcome, good morning

2. your parents after reaching home from the hostel?

**Response:** Assalam-alaykum!

What do you say in greeting:

3. to your teacher before the class?

**Response:** Good morning, sir!

4. to a stranger in a train to whom you want to talk?

**Response:** Good morning, sir!

## Interview 3

### Spoken Requests

How would you ask:

1. your friend to lend you his/her pen?

**Response:** Dear friend, would you give your pen?

2. your parents for money for going on a college tour?

**Response:** Please allow me. Papa, I have to go on college tour.

How would you request:

3. your teacher for reference materials on a topic?

**Response:** Sir, please give me some reference material.

4. a stranger at the railway station for giving you directions to reach the university?

**Response:** Please give me information about the university way.

### **Spoken Thanks**

How will you say thanks:

1. to a friend for lending you money for paying your fees?

**Response:** Thanks a lot.

2. to your father on phone who sent you money for college tour

**Response:** Thank you Papa for sending money.

How would you express your thanks:

3. to your teacher for his/her guidance in your studies?

**Response:** Sir, I am highly thankful for your guidance. I would not be able to get success without your help.

4. to a stranger for saving you from an accident?

**Response:** Thank you so much. I am going to meet an accident.

### **Spoken Apologies**

How would you apologize:

1. to a friend for not being able to attend his/her birthday party?

**Response:** I am really sorry. I was feeling uneasy so please forgive me.

2. to your mother for misbehaving with her?

**Response:** I am really sorry. I am sorry for misbehaving.

How would you apologize:

3. to your teacher for being late for the class?

**Response:** I am sorry sir. There were some problems that I am late. Sorry sir.

4. to your warden for violating a rule of hostel?

**Response:** Sorry Ma'am, I will never repeat it.

### **Spoken Greetings**

How would you greet:

1. your friend when you meet him in the morning?

**Response:** Assalam-alaykum!

2. your parents after reaching home from the hostel?

**Response:** Good afternoon, assalam-alaykum!

What do you say in greeting:

3. to your teacher before the class?

**Response:** Assalam-alaykum!

4. to a stranger in a train to whom you want to talk?

**Response:** How are you, what is your name!

### **Spoken Leave-takings**

How will you say good bye:

1. to a friend after the class?

**Response:** Bye!

2. to your parents when you are leaving home?

**Response:** Khuda hafiz!

How will you say good bye:

3. to your warden when vacating the hostel?

**Response:** Bye!

4. to your teacher after the class?

**Response:** Thank you!

## Interview 4

### Spoken Requests

How would you ask:

1. your friend to lend you his/her pen?

**Response:** Friend, I am taking your book.

2. your parents for money for going on a college tour?

**Response:** Papa, I need money for college tour.

How would you request:

3. your teacher for reference materials on a topic?

**Response:** Sir, can you please provide me some reference material?

4. a stranger at the railway station for giving you directions to reach the university?

**Response:** Will you tell me the way to university?

### Spoken Thanks

How will you say thanks:

1. to a friend for lending you money for paying your fees?

**Response:** Thank you for lending me money.

2. to your father on phone who sent you money for college tour

**Response:** Papa thank you for sending money.

How would you express your thanks:

3. to your teacher for his/her guidance in your studies?

**Response:** Thank you madam for valuable guidance because of you I got the highest marks in sessional test.

4. to a stranger for saving you from an accident?

**Response:** Thank you for saving my life.

### Spoken Apologies

How would you apologize:

1. to a friend for not being able to attend his/her birthday party?

**Response:** Sorry I could not attend your birthday party because my sister's engagement party was being held.

2. to your mother for misbehaving with her?

**Response:** Sorry mamma, it would not be repeated again.

How would you apologize:

3. to your teacher for being late for the class?

**Response:** Ma'am I am sorry. It would never be repeated again.

4. to your warden for violating a rule of hostel?

**Response:** Ma'am I do not know this rule and I can not commit it again in future.

### Spoken Greetings

How would you greet:

1. your friend when you meet him in the morning?

**Response:** Assalam-alaykum!

2. your parents after reaching home from the hostel?

**Response:** By touching their feet!

What do you say in greeting:

3. to your teacher before the class?

**Response:** Good morning, sir!

4. to a stranger in a train to whom you want to talk?

**Response:** Excuse me, hello!



### Spoken Leave-takings

How will you say good bye:

1. to a friend after the class?

**Response:** Khuda hafiz!

2. to your parents when you are leaving home?

**Response:** Khuda hafiz!

How will you say good bye:

3. to your warden when vacating the hostel?

**Response:** Khuda hafiz!

4. to your teacher after the class?

**Response:** Khuda hafiz!

## Interview 5

### Spoken Requests

How would you ask:

1. your friend to lend you his/her pen?

**Response:** Please give me your pen.

2. your parents for money for going on a college tour?

**Response:** Papa, I want to go on college tour.

How would you request:

3. your teacher for reference materials on a topic?

**Response:** Sir, please I want some material.

4. a stranger at the railway station for giving you directions to reach the university?

**Response:** Please tell me the way to university.

### Spoken Thanks

How will you say thanks:

1. to a friend for lending you money for paying your fees?

**Response:** Thanks for lending money.

2. to your father on phone who sent you money for college tour

**Response:** Thank you father for sending me money.

How would you express your thanks:

3. to your teacher for his/her guidance in your studies?

**Response:** Dear Ma'am, I am extremely thankful because without your guidance I was not able to obtain good marks.

4. to a stranger for saving you from an accident?

**Response:** Thank you so much sir.

### Spoken Apologies

How would you apologize:

1. to a friend for not being able to attend his/her birthday party?

**Response:** I was not able to attend your birthday party because of some unfavourable reason. So please, forgive me.

2. to your mother for misbehaving with her?

**Response:** Sorry mamma, I misbehaved with you because of some disturbance. I am really sorry.

How would you apologize:

3. to your teacher for being late for the class?

**Response:** Sorry ma'am, I am late in the class because of some reason.

4. to your warden for violating a rule of hostel?

**Response:** Ma'am I am sorry. This kind of act will not be repeated again in future.

### **Spoken Greetings**

How would you greet:

1. your friend when you meet him in the morning?

**Response:** Hello, assalam-alaykum!

2. your parents after reaching home from the hostel?

**Response:** Assalam-alaykum!

What do you say in greeting:

3. to your teacher before the class?

**Response:** Good morning!

4. to a stranger in a train to whom you want to talk?

**Response:** Hello, what is your name!

### **Spoken Leave-takings**

How will you say good bye:

1. to a friend after the class?

**Response:** Assalam-alaykum!

2. to your parents when you are leaving home?

**Response:** Assalam-alaykum!

How will you say good bye:

3. to your warden when vacating the hostel?

**Response:** Allah hafiz!

4. to your teacher after the class?

**Response:** Khuda hafiz!

## **Dialogue Writing 1**

### **Written Requests**

How will you make a request in writing:

1. to a friend for accompany you on an educational tour?

**Response:** You have to go with me.

2. to your parents for allowing you to go on a tour?

**Response:** Please allow me for college tour.

How will you make a request in writing:

3. to your provost for concession in hostel fee?

**Response:** Madam, kindly give me concession in hostel fees.

4. to a publisher for some text books?

**Response:** Respected sir, would you send some text books related to my course.

### **Written Thanks**

How would you express your thanks in writing:

1. to a friend for a book which he/she lent to you, and which has changed your life?

**Response:** Oh dear friend, I am so grateful to you for lending me such a nice book which has helped me in hitting my exam.

2. to your neighbour who looked after your mother in your absence?

**Response:** Thanks Aunt. You have been so nice as you had looked after my mother in my absence.

How would you express your thanks in writing:

3. to your teacher for his/her guidance in your studies?

**Response:** Thank you Madam. Without your guidance I can't be able to prove myself as a shining star in front of the world.

4. to your provost for fee concession?

**Response:** Thank you Madam for guidance. I will be highly obliged to you.

### **Written Apologies**

How will you apologize in writing:

1. to your friend when you have lost his/her book which he/she lent to you?

**Response:** I am sorry, for my carelessness. I didn't have any intention of losing your book, but it got lost by mistake. Please forgive me.

2. to your mother when you have misbehaved with her?

**Response:** I am sorry, Mama. I shall not repeat this.

How will you apologize in writing:

3. to your proctor after having beaten another student?

**Response:** I am sorry, I should have kept in view the rules and regulations of the university.

4. to the publisher of a book for not having made the payment on time?

**Response:** I am sorry for this, I am ready to bear the consequence of it.

### **Written Greetings**

How would you write your greetings:

1. in a letter to your sister?

**Response:** Dear sister, how are you!

2. in a letter to your friend?

**Response:** My sweet friend!

How would you write your greetings:

3. in a letter to your provost?

**Response:** Respected madam!

4. in a letter to the editor of a newspaper?

**Response:** Assalam-alaykum, sir!

### **Written Leave-takings**

How would you take leave:

1. in a letter to your friend?

**Response:** Bye, best of luck!

2. in a letter to your father?

**Response:** Allah hafiz!

How would you take leave:

3. in a letter to your teacher?

**Response:** Allah hafiz!

4. in a letter to the manager of a company?

**Response:** Bye!

## **Dialogue Writing 2**

### **Written Requests**

How will you make a request in writing:

1. to a friend for accompany you on an educational tour?

**Response:** Please accompany me on an educational tour.

2. to your parents for allowing you to go on a tour?

**Response:** Please, please allow for college tour.

How will you make a request in writing:

3. to your provost for concession in hostel fee?

**Response:** Madam, please give me concession in hostel fees.

4. to a publisher for some text books?

**Response:** Please send some text books.

### **Written Thanks**

How would you express your thanks in writing:

1. to a friend for a book which he/she lent to you, and which has changed your life?

**Response:** Thanks you my friend.

2. to your neighbour who looked after your mother in your absence?

**Response:** Uncle/Aunty thanks a lot.

How would you express your thanks in writing:

3. to your teacher for his/her guidance in your studies?

**Response:** Thanks you, sir.

4. to your provost for fee concession?

**Response:** Thank you Sir. You gave your consideration.

### **Written Apologies**

How will you apologize in writing:

1. to your friend when you have lost his/her book which he/she lent to you?

**Response:** Dear ABC, I'm really very sorry that I have lost your book.

2. to your mother when you have misbehaved with her?

**Response:** Dear Ma'am, I'm very sorry for my behavior I'll never repeat this mistake again in future

How will you apologize in writing:

5. to your proctor after having beaten another student?

**Response:** Respected Sir, I'm very sorry for my conduct in the class

6. to the publisher of a book for not having made the payment on time?

**Response:** I'm sorry for not making payment on time.

### **Written Greetings**

How would you write your greetings:

1. in a letter to your sister?

**Response:** Dear sister, how are you!

2. in a letter to your friend?

**Response:** Hi!

How would you write your greetings:

4. in a letter to your provost?

**Response:** Respected sir

4. in a letter to the editor of a newspaper?

**Response:** Sir!

### **Written Leave-takings**

How would you take leave:

1. in a letter to your friend?

**Response:** Allah hafiz, I miss you every time!()

2. in a letter to your father?

**Response:** Allah hafiz Abbu!

How would you take leave:

3. in a letter to your teacher?

**Response:** Khuda hafiz, remember us in your prayers!

4. in a letter to the manager of a company?

**Response:** Allah hafiz, see you soon!

## Dialogue Writing 3

### Written Requests

How will you make a request in writing:

1. to a friend for accompany you on an educational tour?

**Response:** Dear friend, please accompany me on an educational tour, we will have fun.

2. to your parents for allowing you to go on a tour?

**Response:** Please allow me to go on a college tour. All my friends are going and teachers are also accompanying us.

How will you make a request in writing:

3. to your provost for concession in hostel fee?

**Response:** Respected madam, please consider my financial problem. Please grant me concession.

4. to a publisher for some text books?

**Response:** Respected sir, please parcel me some text books.

### Written Thanks

How would you express your thanks in writing:

1. to a friend for a book which he/she lent to you, and which has changed your life?

**Response:** I am really thankful to you for this.

2. to your neighbour who looked after your mother in your absence?

**Response:** I am really thankful for the pain you took in taking care of my mother in my absence.

How would you express your thanks in writing:

3. to your teacher for his/her guidance in your studies?

**Response:** Madam, I am very thankful to you for your great guidance and help whenever I need.

4. to your provost for fee concession?

**Response:** I am highly thankful for your kind help.

### Written Apologies

How will you apologize in writing:

1. to your friend when you have lost his/her book which he/she lent to you?

**Response:** I'm sorry for not making payment on time.

2. to your mother when you have misbehaved with her?

**Response:** Sorry Ma'am, I am never going to repeat this any more.

How will you apologize in writing:

7. to your proctor after having beaten another student?

**Response:** Sorry Sir.

8. to the publisher of a book for not having made the payment on time?

**Response:** Sorry Sir, next time you'll not get any time of complain from my side.

### Written Greetings

How would you write your greetings:

1. in a letter to your sister?

**Response:** Hi, assalam-alaykum!

2. in a letter to your friend?

**Response:** Hi!

How would you write your greetings:

5. in a letter to your provost?

**Response:** Respected madam

4. in a letter to the editor of a newspaper?

**Response:** The Editor

### **Written Leave-takings**

How would you take leave:

1. in a letter to your friend?

**Response:** Bye-bye, see you again, take care!

2. in a letter to your father?

**Response:** Khuda hafiz! assalam-alaykum!

How would you take leave:

3. in a letter to your teacher?

**Response:** Khuda hafiz, dua karna!

4. in a letter to the manager of a company?

**Response:** Allah hafiz!

## **Dialogue Writing 4**

### **Written Requests**

How will you make a request in writing:

1. to a friend for accompany you on an educational tour?

**Response:** Will you please accompany us on the tour? We shall have great fun there.

2. to your parents for allowing you to go on a tour?

**Response:** Please allow me to go on tour. Dear papa, a tour has been organized by our faculty.

How will you make a request in writing:

3. to your provost for concession in hostel fee?

**Response:** Respected madam, please give me concession in hostel fees.

4. to a publisher for some text books?

**Response:** Respected sir, please post the books whose names are enclosed in letter.

### **Written Thanks**

How would you express your thanks in writing:

1. to a friend for a book which he/she lent to you, and which has changed your life?

**Response:** Thanks dear a lot for the book you have given to me. It has a turning point in my life.

2. to your neighbour who looked after your mother in your absence?

**Response:** Dear Aunty, thank you very much. I can't tell you in words that how much I feel obliged to you. It was through your co-operation on that my mother is back to routine work. Aunty thanks a lot.

How would you express your thanks in writing:

3. to your teacher for his/her guidance in your studies?

**Response:** Respected Sir, I wish to thank you a lot for the right path you have shown to me. It is through your guidance only that today I am able to become a responsible citizen of India. Whatever you have taught me, it always helps me to take right decisions.

4. to your provost for fee concession?

**Response:** Respected Provost Sir, I wish to thank you very much for grant in fee concession. Now I would be able to continue my studies and it had been possible only through your efforts.

I am highly obliged.

### **Written Apologies**

How will you apologize in writing:

1. to your friend when you have lost his/her book which he/she lent to you?

**Response:** Dear friend, I am so sorry that I have lost your book due to my negligence. I will return it to you after purchasing a new book.

2. to your mother when you have misbehaved with her?

**Response:** I am really sorry mother. I had no intention to hurt you.

How will you apologize in writing:

9. to your proctor after having beaten another student?

**Response:** I am sorry Sir.

10. to the publisher of a book for not having made the payment on time?

**Response:** Respected Sir, I am so sorry for the inconvenience for the payment of a book due to postal delay, but it will reach very soon.

### **Written Greetings**

How would you write your greetings:

1. in a letter to your sister?

**Response:** Dear sister!

2. in a letter to your friend?

**Response:** Dear friend, how are you!

How would you write your greetings:

6. in a letter to your provost?

**Response:** Respected madam!

4. in a letter to the editor of a newspaper?

**Response:** Respected sir!

### **Written Leave-takings**

How would you take leave:

1. in a letter to your friend?

**Response:** Bye-bye, see you again, take care!

2. in a letter to your father?

**Response:** Khuda hafiz!

How would you take leave:

3. in a letter to your teacher?

**Response:** Khuda hafiz!

4. in a letter to the manager of a company?

**Response:** Khuda hafiz!

## **Dialogue Writing 5**

### **Written Requests**

How will you make a request in writing:

1. to a friend for accompany you on an educational tour?

**Response:** Dear friend, we are going on an educational tour.

2. to your parents for allowing you to go on a tour?

**Response:** Papa, I want to go on college tour.

How will you make a request in writing:

3. to your provost for concession in hostel fee?

**Response:** Respected sir, I look forward for your kind consideration for concession in hostel fees.

4. to a publisher for some text books?

**Response:** Sir, it will be a grant favour from your side if you could send me ten text books.

### **Written Thanks**

How would you express your thanks in writing:

1. to a friend for a book which he/she lent to you, and which has changed your life?

**Response:** You've proved your friendship. Thanks for such a wonderful book.

2. to your neighbour who looked after your mother in your absence?

**Response:** I've no words to express my thanks for being so kind to my mother in my absence.

How would you express your thanks in writing:

3. to your teacher for his/her guidance in your studies?

**Response:** My work would remain incomplete in absence of your guidance. Thanking you for your guidance and assistance.

4. to your provost for fee concession?

**Response:** I'm highly thankful for your kind consideration.

### Written Apologies

How will you apologize in writing:

1. to your friend when you have lost his/her book which he/she lent to you?

**Response:** Dear friend, I am very sorry, your book is missing. Perhaps my sister has taken it to where she has gone to see a relative. I shall return your book after two days.

2. to your mother when you have misbehaved with her?

**Response:** I am really sorry Mamma.

How will you apologize in writing:

11. to your proctor after having beaten another student?

**Response:** Sir, due to rude remark of my class mate. I am really sorry for my act. I am sorry for my deed and want to apologize to her and to you.

12. to the publisher of a book for not having made the payment on time?

**Response:** Sir, I will not repeat it again.

### Written Greetings

How would you write your greetings:

1. in a letter to your sister?

**Response:** Assalam-alaykum!

2. in a letter to your friend?

**Response:** Assalam-alaykum!

How would you write your greetings:

3. in a letter to your provost?

**Response:** Respected madam!

4. in a letter to the editor of a newspaper?

**Response:** Respected sir!

### Written Leave-takings

How would you take leave:

1. in a letter to your friend?

**Response:** See you later, bye-bye take care!

2. in a letter to your father?

**Response:** Allah hafiz! Take good care of yourself!

How would you take leave:

3. in a letter to your teacher?

**Response:** I wish to see you, Khuda hafiz

4. in a letter to the manager of a company?

**Response:** Thanking you!



## APPENDIX II. c.

### Elicited Requests

S. N	Requests in Interviews	Total No.	Requests in Letters Writing	Total No.
1.	Please give me your pen.	6	Please allow me for college tour.	8
2.	Please tell me the way.	4	Please give me concession in fees.	7
3.	Please give me some reference material.	4	Please send me some text books.	6
4.	Please allow me.	5	Please accompany me on an educational tour.	2
5.	Please provide me some help.	2	Dear friend, we are going on an educational tour.	3
6.	Please give me information about the university way.	1	Respected sir, would you send me some text books?	1
7.	Can you please provide me some reference material?	2	You have to go with me.	1
8.	Could you provide the reference materials?	1	Papa, I want to go on college tour.	3
9.	Will you provide the reference materials?	1	Will you accompany us on the tour?	1
10.	Will you tell me the way to university?	1	Kindly send me some text books.	2
11.	Will you please lend your pen?	1	Kindly give me concession.	1
12.	Would you provide me some reference materials?	1	Let us go.	1
13.	Would you sir, tell the way of university?	3	Let me go.	1
14.	Would you give me your pen?	1	I request you...	6
15.	May I take your pen/help?	3	I shall be highly grateful if	2
16.	Can I go on a college tour?	1	Respected sir, I look forward for your kind consideration for concession in hostel fees.	1
17.	Can you tell me the way/the university road?	3	Sir, it will be a grant favour from your side if you could send me ten text books.	1
18.	Can you give your pen, please?	3	I think you will be going with me on tour and if not you have to, please.	1
19.	Can you allow/permit for college tour?	3	We shall go to Mysore.	1
20.	Can I have your pen, please?	1	I need some books which I think you will provide me.	1
21.	Papa, please give money for college tour.	1	I am going to Nanital on an educational tour and you have to accompany me	1
22.	Please provide.	1	You should come with me.	1
23.	Please, I want some material.	1		
24.	Sir, I do not know the way to university.	1		

25.	Papa, I am going on college tour.	1	
26.	Friend, I am taking your book.	1	
27.	Mumma and papa, arrange some money.	1	
28.	I want to go on college tour.	2	
29.	I have no material.	1	

Table 46

## Analysis of Elicited Requests in Interviews

(Blum-Kulka et al., 1989)

S.N.	Elicited Requests	Directness			Perspectives				Face Features		Supportive Moves
		Direct	Conventionally indirect	Non-conventionally indirect	Hearer dominant	Speaker dominant	Hearer speaker dominant	Impersonal	Up graders	Down graders	
1.	a. May I take your pen, please?	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-
	b. Can I go on a college tour, Papa and Mummy?	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	
	c. May I take your help?	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	My first term exam is near.
	d. Please tell me the way or some hints of university.	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-
2.	a. If you have any pen, give me please.	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-
	b. Papa I am going on college tour.	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	-
	c. Sir, will you provide some reference material?	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-
	d. Sir, I do not know the way to university.	-	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	-
3.	a. Dear friend, would you give me your pen?	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-
	b. Please allow me, Papa.	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	I have to go on college tour.
	c. Sir, please give me some reference material.	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-

	d	Please give me information about the university way.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
4.	a.	Friend, I am taking your book.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	b.	Papa, I need money for college tour.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	c.	Sir, can you please provide me some reference material?	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
	d.	Will you tell me the way to university?	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	Hello sir!
5.	a.	Please give me your pen.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
	b.	Papa, I want to go on college tour.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	c.	Sir, please I want some material.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
	d.	Can you tell me the university road?	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	Hello sir!
6.	a.	Please give me pen.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
	b.	Mamma and papa arrange some money.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	c.	Sir, I have no material.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	d.	Please tell me the way to university.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
7.	a.	Please give me your pen.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	I forgot it at home.
	b.	Please allow me for it.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	Papa, a tour is going on.
	c.	Please provide me some help.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
	d.	Can you tell me the way?	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
	a.	Please give me your pen.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
	b.	Papa, please give money for college tour as I am going on it.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-

8.	c.	Please provide me some reference material.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-
	d.	Excuse me, please tell me the way.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-
9.	a.	Will you please lend your pen?	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-
	b.	Please allow me on this tour.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	Daddy, my college is going on an educational tour.
	c.	Please sir, provide me some reference material on this topic.	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	My examination is very near and I need your help because I have not proper material.
	d.	Please tell me the directions to university.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	Excuse me sir, I am a stranger here.
10.	a.	Please give me your pen.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-
	b.	Please allow me for college tour.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-
	c.	Please provide.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	Sir, I need some reference material on a particular topic.
	d.	Excuse me, would you please guide me to university?	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-
11.	a.	May I take your pen?	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
	b.	Please allow me for college tour.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-
	c.	Would you provide me some reference materials?	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-
	d.	Excuse me, would you tell the way leading to university?	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-
12.	a.	Can you give your pen, please?	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-
	b.	Can you allow for college tour?	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-
	c.	Could you provide the reference materials, sir?	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-

	d	Would you sir, tell the way of university?	-	+	-		+	-	-	-	+	-
	a.	Can you give your pen, please?	-	+	-		+	-	-	-	+	-
	b	Mummy, I want to go on college tour.	+	-	-		-	+	-	-	+	-
13.	c.	Excuse me sir, can you provide some reference material.	-	+	-		+	-	-	-	+	-
	d	Please give information about the university.	+	-	-		+	-	-	-	+	-
	a.	Can you give your pen, please?	-	+	-		+	-	-	-	+	-
	b	Papa, can you permit your son for college tour?	-	+	-		+	-	-	-	+	-
14.	c.	Please sir, give me material.	+	-	-		+	-	-	-	+	-
	d	Excuse me, can you give me some direction to university?	-	+	-		+	-	-	-	+	-
	a.	Can I have your pen, please?	-	+	-		+	+	-	-	+	-
	b	Papa, can you allow me on college tour?	-	+	-		+	-	-	-	+	-
15.	c.	Please give me help.	+	-	-		+	-	-	-	+	Sir, I have some problem in this topic.
	d	Sir, excuse me can you tell me the way.	-	+	-		+	-	-	-	+	-

# Analysis of Elicited Requests in Letter Writings (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989)

S. N.	Elicited Requests	Directness			Perspectives				Face Features		Supportive Moves
		Direct	Conventionally indirect	Non-conventionally indirect	Hearer dominant	Speaker dominant	Hearer speaker dominant	Impersonal	Up graders	Down grade rs	
1.	a. You have to go with me.	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	I shall not enjoy myself without you.
	b. Please allow me for college tour.	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	
	c. Madam, kindly give me concession in hostel fees.	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-
	d. Respected sir, would you send some text books related to my course.	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-
2.	a. Please accompany me on an educational tour.	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-
	b. Please, please allow for college tour.	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-
	c. Madam, please give me concession in hostel fees	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-
	d. Please send some text books.	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-
3.	a. Dear friend, Please accompany me on an educational tour, we will have fun.	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-
	b. Please allow me to go on a college tour.	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	All my friends are going and teachers are also accompanying us.

c.	Please grant me concession.	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	Respected madam, please consider my financial problem
d.	Respected sir please parcel me some text books.	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	
a.	Will you please accompany us on the tour?	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	We shall have great fun there	
b.	Dear papa, please allow me to go on tour.	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	A tour has been organized by our faculty	
c.	Respected madam, please give me concession in hostel fees.	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	
d.	Respected sir, please post the books whose names are enclosed in letter.	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	
a.	Dear friend, we are going on an educational tour.	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	
b.	Papa, I want to go on college tour.	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	
c.	Respected sir, I look forward for your kind consideration for concession in hostel fees.	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	
d.	Sir, it will be a grant favour from your side if you could send me ten text books.	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	
4.												
5.												

6.	a.	I think you will be going with me on tour and if not you have to, please.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
	b.	Let me go there.	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	All of my friends are going there.
	c.	Respected madam, please give me concession in fees.	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-
	d.	Respected sir, I request you to post some books.	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-
7.	a.	Let us go for our educational tour.	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	If you accompany us, we shall enjoy a lot.
	b.	Please allow me to go for our educational tour.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	It will really help in our academic education.
	c.	Please consider me for concession in hostel fees.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
	d.	Respected sir, I need some text books.	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	+	-	We have great fun there.
8.	a.	We shall go to Mysore.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
	b.	Dearest mamma, I want to go on educational tour.	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-
	c.	Please give me for concession in hostel fees.	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	I am unable to fill full



	d.	Kindly send me some text books.	+	-					+	-				+	fee.
9.	a.	We are going to Bangalore.	+	-					-	+				-	-
	b.	Dearest mom, I want to go to Bangalore on an educational tour.	+	-					-					+	-
	c.	Sir, it is requested for concession in hostel fees.	+	-					-	+				+	I am unable to fill full fee due to weak financial status.
	d.	Sir, kindly send me some text books.	+	-					-					+	-
10.	a.	We are going for an educational tour.	+	-					-	+				-	-
	b.	Please allow me.	+	-					-	+				+	I am going to M.P. on an educational tour.
	c.	Sir, I request you for concession in hostel fees.	+	-					-	+				+	I feel problem in paying full hostel fee.
	d.	I need some books which I think you will provide me.	+	-					-	+				+	-
	a.	I am going to Nanital on an educational tour	+	-					-	+				-	-





### Elicited Thanks

S. N.	Thanks in Interviews	Total No.	Thanks in Dialogue Writings	Total No.
1.	Thank you.	31	Thank you.	15
2.	Thanks.	7	Thanks.	7
3.	Thank you very much.	3	Thank you very much.	5
4.	Thanks you a lot.	5	Thanks a lot.	10
5.	Thank you a lot.	1	Thanking you.	3
6.	Thank you so much.	5	Thank you a lot.	1
7.	I am really-really grateful to you.	1	I am so grateful.	2
8.	I am highly thankful.	1	I am highly thankful.	4
9.	I am very-very thankful.	1	I am really thankful.	3
10.	Many thanks.	1	Heartiest thanks.	1
11.	I am very thankful.	1	Neither words nor space is enough to express thanks.	1
12.	I am extremely thankful.	2	I am very thankful.	4
13.	I am extremely thankful and grateful to you.	1	I am very grateful.	2
14.	Thanks. Greatly thankful to you.	1	I am really and very thankful.	1
15.			I have no words to express thanks.	5
16.			I have lost words to express thanks.	1
17.			I am highly obliged.	1

**Table 49**

**Analysis of Thanks in Interviews  
(Based on Eisenstein and Bodman, 1986)**

S. N.	Elicited Thanks	Thanking	Complimenting/ Appreciation for the favour/gift	Expressing affection	Promising to repay	Expression of surprise and delight	Expressing lack of necessity	Exaggerating the favour
1.	a. Thanks.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
	b. Thank you papa for sending money.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
	c. Thank you madam.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
	d. Thank you saving from an accident.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
2.	a. If you had not paid my fee, it would be impossible to get hall ticket. So thank you very much.	+	-	-	-	-	-	+
	b. I am so happy and excited for going on college tour and you have paid for me. Thank you.	+	+	-	-	+	-	-
	c. Thank you sir. It was impossible to get success without your help. Your guidance is excellent.	+	+	-	-	-	-	+
	d. Really, really thankful for saving my life because life is a precious gift and you saved me from an accident so I am really, really grateful to you.	+	+	-	-	-	-	-
3.	a. Thanks a lot.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
	b. Thank you Papa for sending money.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
	c. Sir, I am highly thankful for your guidance. I would not be able to get success without your help.	+	+	-	-	-	-	-
	d. Thank you so much. I am going to meet an accident.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
4.	a. Thank you for lending me money.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
	b. Papa thank you for sending money.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
	c. Thank you madam for valuable guidance because of you I got the highest marks in sessional test.	+	+	-	-	-	-	-
	d. Thank you for saving my life.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
5.	a. Thanks for lending money.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-

	b	Thank you father for sending me money.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	c	Dear Ma'am, I am extremely thankful because without your guidance I was not able to obtain good marks.	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	d	Thank you so much sir.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	a.	Thanks.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
6.	b	Thank you Papa.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	c	Thank you for your valuable guidance in studies.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	d	Thank you Sir.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	a.	Thanks a lot.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
7.	b	Papa, you are so sweet. You have allowed me for tour and sent me money.	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
	c	Thanks Madam for providing me material on that topic.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	d	Thanks a lot for your kind help.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	a	Thank you very much.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
8.	b	Thank you papa for giving me money. You are so sweet.	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
	c.	Thank you for your guidance.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	d	Thank you very much if you do not be here. I would die.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+
	a	Thanks. Greatly thankful to you.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
9.	b	Thank you my sweet papa for sending me money for tour.	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
	c.	Thanks a lot Madam.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	d	Thank you for saving my life.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	a.	I am very-very thankful to you. You are so nice.	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
10	b	Dad many thanks and I am enjoying myself. Oh! You are so nice.	+	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-
	c.	Thank you, Madam.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	d	Thank you.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	a.	Thank you for being so nice to me. You are my sweet friend.	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
11	b	Thanks a lot papa.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

[illegible]

Table 50

### Analysis of Thanks in Dialogues Writing (Based on Eisenstein and Bodman, 1986)

S. N.	Elicited Thanks	Thanking	Complimenting/ Appreciation for the favour/gift	Expressing affection	Promising to repay	Expression of surprise and delight	Expressing lack of necessity	Exaggerating the favour
1.	a. Oh dear friend, I am so grateful to you for lending me such a nice book which has helped me in hitting my exam.	+	+	+	-	-	-	-
	b. Thanks Aunt. You have been so nice as you had looked after my mother in my absence.	+	+	-	-	-	-	-
	c. Thank you Madam. Without your guidance I can't be able to prove myself as a shining star in front of the world.	+	+	-	-	-	-	+
	d. Thank you Madam for guidance. I will be highly obliged to you.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
2.	a. Thanks you my friend.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
	b. Uncle/Aunt thanks a lot.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
	c. Thank you, Sir.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
	d. Thank you Sir. You gave your consideration.	+	+	-	-	-	-	-
3.	a. I am really thankful to you for this.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
	b. I am really thankful for the pain you took in taking care of my mother in my absence.	+	+	-	-	-	-	-
	c. Madam, I am very thankful to you for your great guidance and help whenever I need.	+	+	-	-	-	-	-
	d. I am highly thankful for your kind help.	+	+	-	-	-	-	-
	a. Thanks dear a lot for the book you have given to me. It has a turning point in my life.	+	+	+	-	-	-	-
	b. Dear Aunt, Thank you very much. I can't tell you in words that how much I feel obliged to you. It was through your co-operation on that my mother is back to routine work. Aunt thanks a lot.	+	+	+	-	-	+	-



4.	c	Respected Sir, I wish to thank you a lot for the right path you have shown to me. It is through your guidance only that today I am able to become a responsible citizen of India. Whatever you have taught me, it always helps me to take right decisions.	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
	d	Respected Provost Sir, I wish to thank you very much for grant in fee concession. Now I would be able to continue my studies and it had been possible only through your efforts. I am highly obliged.	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
5.	a	You've proved your friendship. Thanks for such a wonderful book.	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
	b	I've no words to express my thanks for being so kind to my mother in my absence.	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
	c	My work would remain incomplete in absence of your guidance. Thanking you for your guidance and assistance.	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
	d	I'm highly thankful for your kind consideration.	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
6.	a.	I have lost words to express my thanks to you. You are really my best friend. Thank you very much.	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-
	b.	Neither the words nor the space is enough to express my heartiest thanks to you.	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
	c	Thank you very much.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	d	Thanks for the consideration.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
7.	a.	Thank you a lot for giving me a precious book.	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
	b	Thanks very much.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	c	Thank you.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	d	Madam, I am so grateful to you.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
8.	a	Heartiest thanks for giving me such a great book.	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
	b	I am highly thankful for your concern.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+
	c.	Thanks a lot for solving my problems.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

9.	d	Thank you, for your consideration.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	a	Thanks friend, for giving me the book that changed my life.	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
	b	Thanks a lot Aunt. You looked after my mother in my absence. You proved yourself a true neighbour.	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
	c.	Thank you Sir, You helped me. I am very grateful.	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
10	d	Thank you sir for fee concession.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	a.	Dearest Lubna, I am very grateful for your co-operation.	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-
	b.	Dearest Lubna, I have no words to express thanks to you for taking caring of my mother in my absence. I have no words to express thanks to your kind gratitude.	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-
	c.	Sir / Madam I have no words to express you for your help in my studies. You really took great pain to help me in my mathematics, because of your help & secured distinction.	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
11.	d	Sir / Madam. Thanking you.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	a.	Dearest Farheen, I am really thankful to you for 'Discovery of India' the book you lent me. The book mentioned each and every aspect of life, culture, Nationalism, Religion, and politics. The book describes the real India. The book has really changed my thinking about Indian cultural life, religion and politics.	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-
	b	Dear Rohana, I have no word to express thanks to you for taking care of my mother in my absence. You were too careful towards her health because she is Diabetic. I really have no words to express to your kind gestures.	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	+
	c.	Madam, I have no words to express thanks to you for your help in my studies. You really took great pain to help me in my mathematics. Because of your help I	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	+



15.	b	Dear I'm very thankful to you for looking my mother in my absence.	+	-	+	-	-	-	-
	c.	Respected Ma'am, thanks for guiding me in my studies.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
	d	Respected Ma'am/Sir, I'm highly thankful to you for granting fee concession.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 51

## Elicited Apologies

S. N.	Apologies in Interviews	Total No.	Apologies in Dialogues Writing	Total No.
1.	Sorry.	40	Sorry.	22
2.	I am sorry.	8	I am sorry.	14
3.	I am very sorry.	1	I am very sorry.	6
4.	I am really sorry.	2	I am really sorry.	7
5.	I am extremely sorry.	3	I am extremely sorry.	2
6.	I apologize.	1	I apologize.	3
7.	I am so sorry.	1	I am so sorry.	3
8.	I am deeply regretful.	1	I am deeply regretful.	1
9.	Forgive me	1	Forgive me.	3

Table 52

**Analysis of Apologies in Interviews  
(Based on Cohen and Olshtain, 1981)**

S. N.	Elicited Apologies	Expressions of apology with/without intensifiers	Acknowledgement of responsibility	Explanation	Offer of repair	Promise of non- recurrence	Interjectives
1.	a. I am so sorry.	+	-	-	-	-	-
	b. I am very much sorry.	+	-	-	-	-	-
	c. Sorry Ma'am, I would try not to be late in class again.	-	-	-	-	+	-
	d. I am sorry. I would not violate the rules of hostel.	-	-	-	-	+	-
2.	a. Sorry dear please. I could not attend your birthday party due to some reasons. You can understand the basic reason of not attending the party.	-	-	+	-	+	-
	b. She can understand my feeling. I apologize and I would never repeat it and forgive me.	-	-	-	-	+	-
	c. Sorry for being late and I did not get rickshaw.	-	-	+	-	-	-
	d. Extremely sorry sir. It was my fault. I made my friend stay without your permission because she had no place in Aligarh.	+	+	+	-	-	-
3.	a. I am really sorry. I was feeling uneasy so please forgive me.	+	-	+	-	-	-
	b. I am really sorry. I am sorry for misbehaving.	+	-	-	-	-	-
	c. I am sorry sir. There were some problems that I am late. Sorry sir.	-	-	+	+	-	-
	d. Sorry Ma'am, I will never repeat it.	-	-	-	-	+	-
4.	a. Sorry I could not attend your birthday party because my sister's engagement party was being held.	-	-	+	-	-	-
	b. Sorry mamma, it would not be repeated again.	-	-	-	-	+	-
	c. Ma'am I am sorry. It would never be repeated again	-	-	-	-	+	-

	d.	Ma'am I do not know this rule and I can not commit it again in future.	-	-	+	-	+	-
5.	a.	I was not able to attend your birthday party because of some unfavourable reason. So please, forgive me.	-	-	+	-	-	-
	b.	Sorry mamma, I misbehaved with you because of some disturbance. I am really sorry.	+	-	+	-	-	-
	c.	Sorry ma'am, I am late in the class because of some reason.	-	-	+	-	-	-
	d.	Ma'am I am sorry. This kind of act will not be repeated again in future.	-	-	-	-	+	-
6.	a.	Sorry friend, I was already engaged.	-	-	+	-	-	-
	b.	I am extremely sorry mummy. My intention was not to misbehave with you.	+	+	+	-	-	-
	c.	Sorry Ma'am, I will try to come at right time.	-	-	-	-	+	-
	d.	Sorry Ma'am, I will like to follow the rules of hostel.	-	-	-	-	+	-
7.	a.	Sorry, I was not able to attend your birthday party because there was an emergency.	-	-	+	-	-	-
	b.	Sorry mom, it would not be repeated again.	-	-	-	-	+	-
	c.	Sorry Ma'am, I would not do this again.	-	-	-	-	+	-
	d.	Sorry Ma'am, it would never be repeated.	-	-	-	-	+	-
8.	a.	Sorry, I would not give next chance.	-	-	-	-	+	-
	b.	Sorry mom, please forgive me.	-	-	-	-	-	-
	c.	Sorry sir. May I enter into the class? Give me permission. I will never do this.	-	-	-	-	+	-
	d.	Sorry Ma'am, I would not do it again; and again sorry.	-	-	-	-	+	-
9.	a.	Sorry, I was busy somewhere.	-	-	+	-	-	-
	b.	Sorry Mom. Please forgive me.	-	-	-	-	-	-
	c.	Sorry Ma'am, I was stuck in traffic.	-	-	+	-	-	-
	d.	Sorry. I would not be repeated it again.	-	-	-	-	+	-
10	a.	Sorry, my dear friend, I was coming to you	-	-	+	-	-	-

[illegible]

c.	Sorry sir. I did not get rickshaw.	-	-	+	-	+	-
d.	Sorry Ma'am, it would not be repeated again.	-	-	-	-	+	-

Table 53

### Analysis of Apologies in Dialogue Writing (Based on Cohen and Olshtain, 1981)

S. N.	Elicited Apologies	Expressions of Apology with/without intensifiers	Acknowledgement of responsibility	Explanation	Offer of repair	Promise of non-recurrence	Interjectives
1.	a. Dear ABC, I'm really very sorry that I have lost your book. b. Dear Ma'am, I'm very sorry for my behavior I'll never repeat this mistake again in future c. Respected Sir, I'm very sorry for my conduct in the class d. I'm sorry for not making payment on time.	+	-	-	-	+	-
2	a. I am really very sorry. b. Sorry Ma'am, I am never going to repeat this any more. c. Sorry Sir. d. Sorry Sir, next time you'll not get any time of complain from my side.	+	-	-	-	+	-
3.	a. I am sorry, for my carelessness. I didn't have any intention of losing your book, but it got lost by mistake. Please forgive me. b. I am sorry, Mama. I shall not repeat this. c. I am sorry, I should have kept in view the rules and regulations of the university. d. I am sorry for this, I am ready to bear the consequence of it.	-	+	+	-	+	-
4.	a. Dear friend, I am so sorry that I have lost your book due to my negligence. I will return it to you after purchasing a new book. b. I am really sorry mother. I had no intention to hurt you.	+	+	-	+	-	-



5.	c.	I am sorry Sir.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	d.	Respected Sir, I am so sorry for the inconvenience for the payment of a book due to postal delay, but it will reach very soon.	+	-	+	-	-	-	-
	a.	Dear friend, I am very sorry, your book is missing. Perhaps my sister has taken it to where she has gone to see a relative. I shall return your book after two days.	+	-	+	+	-	-	-
	b.	I am really sorry Mamma.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
6.	c.	Sir, due to rude remark of my class mate. I am really sorry for my act. I am sorry for my deed and want to apologize to her and to you.	+	+	+	-	-	-	-
	d.	Sir, I will not repeat it again.	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
	a.	Dear Rohini, I am very sorry that I lost your English text book. I have ordered the other copy of it and very soon it will be delivered to your address.	+	-	+	+	+	-	-
	b.	Dearest Mummy, sorry is the word that is insufficient to describe my apology towards you for my misbehavior. Please forgive me for my wrong doings. I will never commit such behavior any more. Please forgive me.	+	+	-	-	-	+	-
7.	c.	Sir, due to the rude remarks of my class mate Rohit I slapped him. I am really sorry that I slapped him in front of others. I am sorry for my deed and want to apologize.	+	+	-	-	-	-	-
	d.	Sir, sorry. In spite of several reminders I was unable to make my payment as I was in Delhi.	+	-	+	-	-	-	-
	a.	Sorry friend, I have lost your book.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
	b.	Sorry Ammi, I hurt you but again I will not repeat it.	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
8.	c.	Sorry Sir, that time I was in anger and how I accept my misbehavior.	-	+	+	-	-	-	-
	d.	You sent me other books while I did not sent payment so I am very sorry.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
	a.	I am extremely sorry for my mistake. Hope you will not mind.	+	-	-	-	-	-	-

	b.	Sorry, sorry, sorry, Luvs you.	-	-	-	-	-	-
	c.	I am sorry for my behavior. It will not happen again in the future.	-	-	-	-	+	-
	d.	Sorry for the delay.	-	-	-	-	-	-
	a.	Sorry, I lost your book.	-	-	-	-	-	-
9.	b.	Mummy I am so sorry but sorry is a short word for this mistake.	+	-	-	-	-	-
	c.	Sorry Sir and this will be never repeated. I am shameful on my mistake.	+	+	-	-	+	-
	d.	I am really sorry for not paying on right time.	+	-	-	-	-	-
	a.	Sorry I hope you will not mind.	-	-	-	-	-	-
10	b.	Sorry very sorry.	+	-	-	-	-	-
	c.	I am sorry for the mistake.	-	+	-	-	-	-
	d.	I apologize for the delay.	-	-	-	-	-	-
	a.	I'm sorry.	-	-	-	-	-	-
11	b.	Sorry, love you Mama.	-	-	-	-	-	-
	c.	I am sorry for my behavior.	-	-	-	-	-	-
	d.	I'm sorry for the delay of payment.	-	-	-	-	-	-
	a.	Hello dear, I am sorry you. The book which I had borrowed from you has lost. So would you please tell me from where you have bought it so I will try to bring a new copy of that book.	-	-	+	+	-	-
12	b.	Dear Mummy, I know that the act which I had done with you is not forgivable. Children should always listen to them instead of arguing with them. But I am really sorry. I won't repeat this again. Please forgive me.	+	+	+	-	+	-
	c.	Respected Sir, I wish to express my sorry for misbehavior with my class mate. I had a simple argument which took such a bad shape but I apologize not to repeat such act in future. Kindly forgive me. I will be highly obliged to you.	-	+	+	-	+	-
	d.	Sorry sir.	-	-	-	-	-	-
	a.	I am really sorry.	+	-	-	-	-	-

	b.	Sorry mom.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	c.	Sorry sir, This will never be repeated.	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
	d.	Sorry, I forgot sir, I will pay.	-	-	-	+	-	-	-
14	a.	Sorry my dear friend, by mistake I have lost your book but don't worry I will buy you a new.	-	-	+	-	+	-	-
	b.	Sorry mummy, yesterday I was upset that's why I shouted at you. I will not repeat it in future. Promise.	-	-	-	+	-	+	-
	c.	Sorry sir. It was my fault and I will not repeat this act again. Please sir, forgive me.	-	-	+	-	-	+	-
	d.	Sorry sir due to sudden arrival of problem I was unable to make payment on time.	-	-	-	+	-	-	-
15.	a.	Sorry, I have lost your book but do not mind I will manage it.	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
	b.	I am sorry Mom but it will not be repeated.	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
	c.	This is to register my apology for highly inappropriate deed on my part. I'm deeply regretful.	+	+	+	-	-	-	-
	d.	I am extremely sorry that I could not send the payment for the purchased books on time.	+	+	+	-	-	-	-

Table 54

### Elicited Greetings

S. N.	Greetings in Interviews	Total No.	Greetings in Letters Writings	Total No.
1.	Hi!	2	Hi!	5
2.	Hi! How are you?	1	Hi, assalam-alaykum!	2
3.	Hello!	4	How are you?	1
4.	Hello! What is your name?	1	Dear sister/friend, how are you?	4
5.	Hello! Good morning!	1	Dear friend/sister	5
6.	Assalam-alaykum!	15	Assalam-alaykum!	3
7.	Good morning!	19	My dear	3
8.	Good afternoon!	2	The editor!	1
9.	How are you!	4	How are you?	4
10.	Excuse me!	3	Sir!	3
11.	By touching feet!	1	Respected sir/madam	25
12.	I'll hug them!	1	My dear!	15
13.	Yes partner please look at me!	1	Dearest friend!	2
14.	Hello! Excuse me, what is your name?	1	My sweet friend!	1
15.	Hello! How are you?	1	Assalam-alaykum, dear sis/dear friend.	2
16.	Excuse me, where are you going?	1	Assalam-alaykum, respected madam	1
17.	Hello sir, may I know your name?	1	Hello sweet sister	1
18.	Excuse me, hello!	1	Dear sis, hello!	1
19.	How are you? What is your name?	1	My dearest friend, hello!	1
20.	Very-very good morning	1	Dearest sis, how are you?	1
21.	Welcome, good morning!	1		
22.	Good afternoon, assalam-alaykum!	1		

Table 55

# Analysis of Greetings in Interviews

S. N.	Elicited Greetings	Politeness		Formality		Religion-orientedness	
		Very Polite	Polite	Formal	Informal	Religion-oriented	Non-religion-oriented
1.	a. Hi! (to friend)	-	+	-	+	-	+
	b. Assalam-alaykum!(to parents)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	c. Good morning, sir! (to teacher)	-	+	+	-	-	+
	d. Hello, what is your name! (to stranger)	-	+	-	+	-	+
2.	a. Hello, good morning! (to friend)	-	+	-	+	-	+
	b. Yes mother, good afternoon!(to parents)	-	+	+	-	-	+
	c. Good morning, sir! (to teacher)	-	+	+	-	-	+
	d. Yes partner please look at me! (to stranger)	-	+	-	+	-	+
3.	a. Welcome, good morning! (to friend)	-	+	+	-	-	+
	b. Assalam-alaykum!(to parents)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	c. Good morning, sir! (to teacher)	-	+	+	-	-	+
	d. Good morning, sir! (to stranger)	-	+	+	-	-	+
4.	a. Assalam-alaykum!(to friend)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	b. Assalam-alaykum!(to parents)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	c. Good morning, sir! (to teacher)	-	+	+	-	-	+
	d. Hello, how are you! (to stranger)	-	-	-	+	-	+
5.	a. Good morning! (to friend)	-	+	+	-	-	+
	b. Assalam-alaykum!(to parents)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	c. Good morning, sir! (to teacher)	-	+	+	-	-	+
	d. Excuse me, where are you going!	-	-	-	+	-	+
6.	a. Good morning! (to friend)	-	+	+	-	-	+
	b. Hello! (to parents)	-	+	-	+	-	+
	c. Good morning, sir! (to teacher)	-	+	+	-	-	+
	d. Hello, excuse me, what is your name!(to stranger)	-	-	-	+	-	+
7.	a. Good morning! (to friend)	-	+	+	-	-	+
	b. Assalam-alaykum!(to parents)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	c. Good morning, sir! (to teacher)	-	+	+	-	-	+
	d. Hello sir, may I know your name! (to stranger)	-	+	-	+	-	+
8.	a. Assalam-alaykum!(to friend)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	b. By touching their feet! (to parents)	+	-	-	+	+	-
	c. Good morning, sir! (to teacher)	-	!	!	-	-	+
	d. Excuse me, hello! (to stranger)	-	-	-	+	-	+

9.	a.	Assalam-alaykum!(to friend)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	b.	Good afternoon, assalam-alaykum!(to parents)	-	+	+	-	+	-
	c.	Assalam-alaykum!(to teacher)	-	+	+	-	+	-
	d.	How are you, what is your name! (to stranger)	-	-	+	+	-	+
10	a.	Hi, how are you! (to friend)	-	+	-	+	-	+
	b.	Assalam-alaykum!(to parents)	-	+	+	+	+	-
	c.	Good morning, sir! (to teacher)	-	+	+	-	-	+
	d.	Hello! (to stranger)	-	-	+	+	-	+
11	a.	Hi! (to friend)	-	+	-	+	-	+
	b.	I'll hug them!(to parents)	-	+	+	-	-	+
	c.	Good morning, sir! (to teacher)	-	+	+	-	-	+
	d.	Hello! (to stranger)	-	-	-	+	-	+
12	a.	Good morning! (to friend)	-	+	+	-	-	+
	b.	Good morning! (to parents)	-	+	+	-	-	+
	c.	Good afternoon, sir! (to teacher)	-	+	+	-	-	+
	d.	Assalam-alaykum! (to stranger)	-	+	+	-	+	-
13	a.	Good morning, friend! (to friend)	-	+	+	-	-	+
	b.	Good afternoon! (to parents)	-	+	+	-	-	+
	c.	Very-very good morning! (to teacher)	-	+	+	-	-	+
	d.	Assalam-alaykum! (to stranger)	-	+	+	-	+	-
14	a.	Hello, assalam-alaykum!(to friend)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	b.	Assalam-alaykum!(to parents)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	c.	Good morning, sir! (to teacher)	-	+	+	-	-	+
	d.	Hello, what is your name! (to stranger)	-	-	-	+	-	+
15	a.	Assalam-alaykum!(to friend)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	b.	Assalam-alaykum!(to parents)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	c.	Good morning, sir! (to teacher)	-	+	+	-	-	+
	d.	Hello, sir! (to stranger)	-	-	-	+	-	+

Table 56

### Analysis of Greetings in Letters Writing

S. N.	Elicited Greetings	Politeness			Formality		Religion-oriented		Religion-oriented ness
		Very Polite	Polite		Formal	Informal	Religion-oriented	Non-religion-oriented	
1.	a. Dear sister, how are you! (to sister)	-	+		-	+	-		+
	b. My sweet friend! (to friend)	-	+		-	+	-		+
	c. Respected madam (to provost)	+	-		+	-	-		+
	d. Assalam-alaykum, sir!(to editor)	-	+		+	-	+		-
2.	a. Dear sister, how are you! (to sister)	-	+		-	+	-		+
	b. Hi! (to friend)	-	+		-	+	-		+
	c. Respected sir (to provost)	+	-		+	-	-		+
	d. Sir!(to editor)	-	+		+	-	-		+
3.	a. Hi, assalam-alaykum! (to sister)	-	+		-	+	+		-
	b. Hi! (to friend)	-	+		-	+	-		+
	c. Respected madam (to provost)	+	-		+	-	-		+
	d. The Editor!(to editor)	-	-		+	-	-		+
4.	a. Dear sister! (to sister)	-	+		-	+	-		+
	b. Dear friend, how are you! (to friend)	-	+		-	+	-		+
	c. Respected madam (to provost)	+	-		+	-	-		+
	d. Respected sir! (to editor)	+	-		+	-	-		+
5.	a. Assalam-alaykum! (to sister)	-	+		-	+	+		-
	b. Assalam-alaykum! (to parents)	-	+		-	+	+		-
	c. Respected madam (to provost)	+	-		+	-	-		+
	d. Respected sir! (to editor)	+	-		+	-	-		+
6.	a. Assalam-alaykum, dear sis! (to sister)	-	+		-	+	+		-
	b. Assalam-alaykum, dear friend! (to parents)	-	+		-	+	+		-
	c. Assalam-alaykum, respected madam (to provost)	+	-		+	-	+		-
	d. Respected sir! (to editor)	+	-		+	-	-		+
7.	a. Dear sister! (to sister)	-	+		-	+	-		+
	b. Dear friend, how are you! (to friend)	-	+		-	+	-		+
	c. Respected madam (to provost)	+	-		+	-	-		+
	d. Respected sir! (to editor)	+	-		+	-	-		+
8.	a. My dear! (to sister)	-	+		-	+	-		+
	b. Hi! (to friend)	-	+		-	+	-		+
	c. Respected madam (to provost)	+	-		+	-	-		+
	d. Sir! (to editor)	-	+		+	-	-		+

9.	a.	My dear! (to sister)	-	+	-	+	-	+	+
	b.	Hi! (to friend)	-	+	-	+	-	+	+
	c.	Respected madam (to provost)	+	-	+	-	-	+	+
	d.	Sir! (to editor)	-	+	+	+	-	+	+
10	a.	My dear sister! (to sister)	-	+	-	+	-	+	+
	b.	Dear friend! (to friend)	-	+	-	+	-	+	+
	c.	Respected madam (to provost)	+	-	+	-	-	+	+
	d.	Respected sir! (to editor)	+	-	+	-	-	+	+
11	a.	Hello, sweet sister! (to sister)	-	+	-	+	-	+	+
	b.	Dearest friend! (to friend)	-	+	-	+	-	+	+
	c.	Respected madam (to provost)	+	-	+	-	-	+	+
	d.	Respected sir! (to editor)	+	-	+	-	-	+	+
12	a.	Dear sis, hello! (to sister)	-	+	-	+	-	+	+
	b.	My dearest friend, hello! (to friend)	-	+	-	+	-	+	+
	c.	Respected madam (to provost)	+	-	+	-	-	+	+
	d.	Respected sir! (to editor)	+	-	+	-	-	+	+
13	a.	Dear sister! (to sister)	-	+	-	+	-	+	+
	b.	Dear friend! (to friend)	-	+	-	+	-	+	+
	c.	Respected madam (to provost)	+	-	+	-	-	+	+
	d.	Respected sir! (to editor)	+	-	+	-	-	+	+
14	a.	Dearest sis, how are you! (to sister)	-	+	-	+	-	+	+
	b.	Dearest friend! (to friend)	-	+	-	+	-	+	+
	c.	Respected madam (to provost)	+	-	+	-	-	+	+
	d.	Respected sir! (to editor)	+	-	+	-	-	+	+
15	a.	Hi! (to sister)	-	+	-	+	-	+	+
	b.	How are you! (to friend)	-	+	-	+	-	+	+
	c.	Respected sir (to provost)	+	-	+	-	-	+	+
	d.	Respected sir! (to editor)	+	-	+	-	-	+	+

Table 57



### Elicited Leave-takings

S. N.	Leave-takings in Interviews	Total No.	Leave-takings in Letters Writing	Total No.
1.	Bye!	10	Khuda/Allah hafiz!	15
2.	Good bye!	10	Allah hafiz, I miss you!	1
3.	Khuda hafiz!	15	Khuda hafiz, remember us in your prayers!	1
4.	Thank you!	4	Allah hafiz, see you soon!	1
5.	Nice to meet you!	2	Khuda hafiz, assalam-alaykum!	2
6.	I will miss you!	1	Khuda hafiz, dua karna!	1
7.	Assalam-alaykum!	3	Allah hafiz, take care of yourself!	1
8.	Make dua!	1	I wish you to see you, khuda hafiz!	1
9.	Bye! O.K. sir, thank you.	1	Allah hafiz, yours loving!	1
10.	O.K. friend, meet you next time, good bye.	1	Allah hafiz, yours obediently!	1
11.	Dad bye!	1	Allah hafiz, miss you papa!	1
12.	Thank you, good bye.	1	Bye!	1
13.	Good bye to all of you!	1	Bye, best luck!	1
14.	Bye! Allah hafiz!	1	Bye-bye!	2
15.	Good bye and very thankful for your hospitality!	1	Bye-bye, see you agan, take care!	2
16.	Bye, see you!	1	Yours obediently!	4
17.	O.K. bye!	1	Take care, assalam-alaykum!	1
18.	Bye-bye	1	Bye-bye see you later!	1
19.	O.K. guy, bye-bye!	1	Yours lovingly!	1
20.	Good bye, have a nice day!	1	Thanking/thank you!	4
21.	Khuda hafiz, assalam-alaykum!	1	I am leaving sir!	1
22.	So nice of you, Allah hafiz!	1	Yours faithfully!	9
23.			Bye-bye, see you soon.	1
26.			Take care, respected ma'am!	1
27.			Bye, take care!	1
28.			Bye, wishing you good luck, take care, love you!	1
29.			Yours friend!	1

Table 58

### Analysis of Leave-takings in Interviews

S. N.	Elicited Leave-takings	Politeness		Formality		Religion-orientedness	
		Very Polite	Polite	Formal	Informal	Religion oriented	Non-religion-oriented
1	a. Bye! (to friend)	-	+	-	+	-	+
	b. Assalam-alaykum! (to parents)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	c. Khuda hafiz, assalam-alaykum! (to warden)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	d. Bye! (to teacher)	-	+	-	+	-	+
2	a. O.K. friend, meet you next time, good bye!(to friend)	-	+	-	+	-	+
	b. Dad bye! (to parents)	-	+	-	+	-	+
	c. Bye! (to warden)	-	+	-	+	-	+
	d. Bye! Ok. Sir, thank you. (to teacher)	-	+	-	+	-	+
3	a. Good bye! (to friend)	-	+	+	-	-	+
	b. Good bye! (to parents)	-	+	+	-	-	+
	c. Good bye to all of you! (to warden)	-	+	+	-	-	+
	d. Thank you, good bye! (to teacher)	-	+	+	-	-	+
4	a. Good bye! (to friend)	-	+	+	-	-	+
	b. Good bye! (to parents)	-	+	+	-	-	+
	c. Good bye and very thankful for your hospitality!	+	-	+	-	-	+
	d. Thank you sir! (to teacher)	-	+	+	-	-	+
5	a. Nice to meet you! (to friend)	-	+	-	+	-	+
	b. Bye, Allah hafiz! (to parents)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	c. Bye! (to warden)	-	+	-	+	-	+
	d. Bye! (to teacher)	-	+	-	+	-	+
6	a. Bye! (to friend)	-	+	-	+	-	+
	b. Good bye! (to parents)	-	+	+	-	-	+
	c. Good bye! (to warden)	-	+	+	-	-	+
	d. Nice to meet you! (to teacher)	-	+	-	+	-	+
7	a. Bye! (to friend)	-	+	-	+	-	+
	b. Khuda hafiz! (to parents)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	c. Bye! (to warden)	-	+	-	+	-	+
	d. Thank you! (to teacher)	-	+	+	-	-	+
8	a. Khuda hafiz! (to friend)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	b. Khuda hafiz! (to parents)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	c. Khuda hafiz! (to warden)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	d. Khuda hafiz! (to teacher)	-	+	-	+	+	-

9	a.	Assalam-alaykum! (to friend)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	b.	Assalam-alaykum! (to parents)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	c.	Allah hafiz! (to warden)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	d.	Khuda hafiz! (to teacher)	-	+	-	+	+	-
10	a.	Bye, see you! (to friend)	-	+	-	+	-	+
	b.	O.K. bye! (to parents)	-	+	-	+	-	+
	c.	Khuda hafiz! (to warden)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	d.	Khuda hafiz! (to teacher)	-	+	-	+	+	-
11	a.	Bye! (to friend)	-	+	-	+	-	+
	b.	Good bye! (to parents)	-	+	+	-	+	+
	c.	Khuda hafiz! (to warden)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	d.	Thank you! (to teacher)	-	+	+	-	+	+
12	a.	Bye! (to friend)	-	+	-	+	-	+
	b.	Good bye! (to parents)	-	+	+	-	+	+
	c.	Bye-bye! (to warden)	-	+	-	+	-	+
	d.	Thank you! (to teacher)	-	+	+	-	+	+
13	a.	O.K. I am going, make dua! (to friend)	-	+	-	+	-	-
	b.	Good bye, have a nice day! (to parents)	-	+	+	-	-	+
	c.	Khuda hafiz! (to warden)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	d.	Good bye! (to teacher)	-	+	+	-	-	+
14	a.	Good bye! (to friend)	-	+	+	-	-	+
	b.	Allah hafiz! (to parents)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	c.	So nice of you, Allah hafiz! (to warden)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	d.	Khuda hafiz! (to teacher)	-	+	-	+	+	-
15	a.	O.K. guy, bye-bye! (to friend)	-	+	-	+	-	+
	b.	Khuda hafiz! (to parents)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	c.	I will miss you!	-	+	-	+	-	+
	d.	Khuda hafiz! (to teacher)	-	+	-	+	+	-

Table 59

### Analysis of Leave-takings in Letters Writing

S. N.	Elicited Leave-takings	Politeness		Formality		Religion-orientedness	
		Very Polite	Polite	Formal	Informal	Religion oriented	Non-religion-oriented
1.	a. Bye, best luck! (to friend)	-	+	-	+	-	+
	b. Allah hafiz! (to father)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	c. Allah hafiz! (to teacher)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	d. Bye-bye! (to manager)	-	+	-	+	-	+
2.	a. Allah hafiz, I miss you every time! (to friend)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	b. Allah hafiz Abbu! (to father)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	c. Khuda hafiz, remember us in your prayers! (to teacher)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	d. Allah hafiz, see you soon! (to manager)	-	+	-	+	+	-
3.	a. Bye-bye, see you again, take care! (to friend)	-	+	-	+	-	+
	b. Khuda hafiz! Assalam-alaykum! (to father)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	c. Khuda hafiz, dua karna! (to teacher)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	d. Allah hafiz! (to manager)	-	+	-	+	+	-
4.	a. Bye-bye, see you again, take care! (to friend)	-	+	-	+	-	+
	b. Khuda hafiz! Assalam-alakum papa! (to father)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	c. Khuda hafiz, Ma'am! (to teacher)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	d. Khuda hafiz! (to manager)	-	+	-	+	+	-
5.	a. See you later, bye-bye take care! (to friend)	-	+	-	+	-	+
	b. Allah hafiz! Take good care of yourself! (to father)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	c. I wish to see you, Khuda hafiz! (to teacher)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	d. Thanking you! (to manager)	-	+	+	-	-	+
6.	a. Bye-bye! (to friend)	-	+	-	+	-	+
	b. Allah hafiz! (to father)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	c. Allah hafiz! (to teacher)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	d. Bye sir! (to manager)	-	+	-	+	-	+
7.	a. Bye! Wishing you good luck, take care! (to friend)	-	+	-	+	-	+
	b. Allah hafiz, yours loving! (to father)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	c. Allah hafiz, yours obediently! (to teacher)	+	-	+	-	+	-
	d. Thank you! (to manager)	-	+	+	-	-	+
8.	a. Bye, take care! (to friend)	-	+	-	+	-	+
	b. Khuda hafiz! (to father)	-	+	-	+	+	-
	c. Take care, respected madam! (to teacher)	-	+	-	+	-	+
	d. I am leaving sir! (to manager)	-	+	-	+	-	+
	a. Yours friend! (to friend)	-	+	-	+	-	+

9.	b.	Yours obediently! (to father)	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	+
	c.	Yours obediently! (to teacher)	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	+
	d.	Yours faithfully! (to manager)	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	+
	a.	Khuda hafiz! (to friend)	-	+	+	+	+	-	+	-
10	b.	Khuda hafiz! (to father)	-	+	+	+	+	-	+	-
	c.	Yours faithfully! (to teacher)	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	+
	d.	Yours faithfully! (to manager)	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	+
	a.	Allah hafiz!(to friend)	-	+	+	+	+	-	+	-
11	b.	Allah hafiz! (to father)	-	+	+	+	+	-	+	-
	c.	Thanking you! (to teacher)	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	+
	d.	Thanking you! (to manager)	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	+
	a.	Take care, assalam-alaykum! (to friend)	-	+	+	+	+	-	+	+
12	b.	Allah hafiz, Papa! (to father)	-	+	+	+	+	-	+	-
	c.	Yours obediently! (to teacher)	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	+
	d.	Yours faithfully! (to manager)	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	+
	a.	O.K. Bye! (to friend)	-	+	+	+	+	-	+	+
13	b.	Yours lovingly! (to father)	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	+
	c.	Yours faithfully! (to teacher)	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	+
	d.	Yours faithfully! (to manager)	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	+
	a.	Bye-bye, see you later! (to friend)	-	+	+	+	+	-	+	+
14	b.	Allah hafiz! Miss you papa! (to father)	-	+	+	+	+	-	+	-
	c.	Yours faithfully! (to teacher)	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	+
	d.	Yours faithfully! (to manager)	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	+
	a.	Bye-bye, see you soon! (to friend)	-	+	+	+	+	-	+	+
15	b.	Allah hafiz, papa! (to father)	-	+	+	+	+	-	+	-
	c.	Yours faithfully! (to teacher)	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	+
	d.	Yours obediently! (to manager)	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	+
	a.	Yours obediently! (to father)	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	+

Table 60